



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

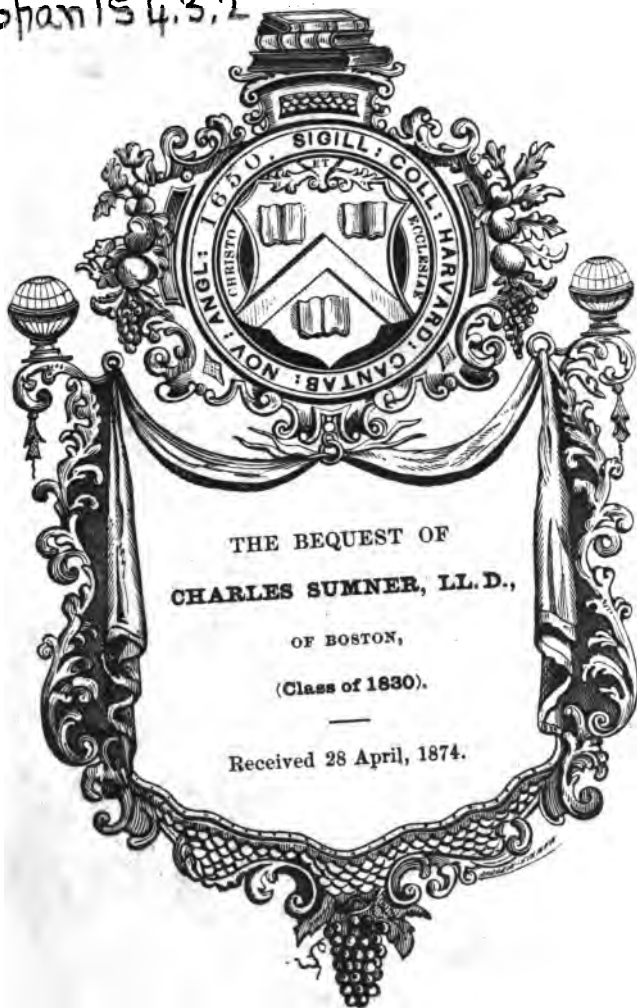
- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

8-57

span 154.3.2

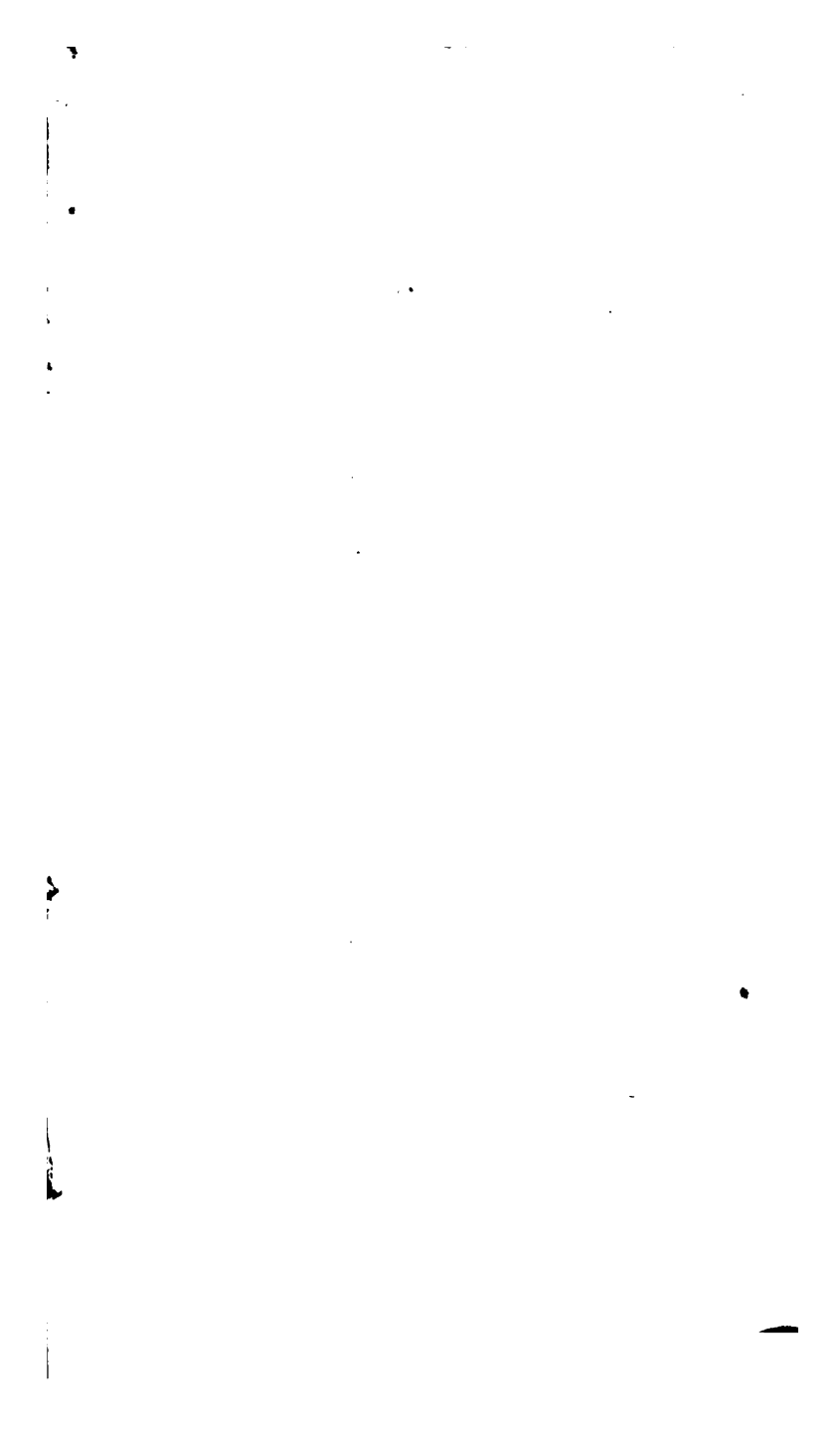


Chas. Sumner

Nov. 1832

Memorandum

1881



THE
CABINET OF HISTORY.

CONDUCTED BY THE

REV. DIONYSIUS LARDNER, LL. D. F. R. S. L. & E.
M. R. I. A. F. R. A. S. F. L. S. F. Z. S. Hon. F. C. P. S. &c. &c.

ASSISTED BY

EMINENT LITERARY MEN.

HISTORY
OF
SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.
VOL II.

Philadelphia:
CAREY & LEA—CHESTNUT STREET.

.....
1832.

Shan 154.3.2

HISTORY

OF

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

VOL. II.

2'

Philadelphia :

CAREY & LEA—CHESTNUT STREET.

.....

1832.

1874, April 28.
Sumner Bequest.

ANALYTICAL AND CHRONOLOGICAL

T A B L E

OF THE

HISTORY OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

BOOK III.—*continued.*

SPAIN DURING THE DOMINATION OF THE ARABS.

SECTION I.—*continued.*

MOHAMMEDAN SPAIN.

CHAPTER I.

DOMINATION OF THE AFRICANS, ETC. 1031—1238.

1. *Independent Kingdoms.*

A. H.		Page
412—423.	Formation of several Independent States	39
423—432.	Wise Government of Gehwar ben Muhammed, who, however, vainly strives to restore the Supremacy of Cordova	40
433—455.	Mohammed Almoateded, King of Seville, treacherously seizes Cordova	42
456—472.	Ismail ben Dylun, King of Toledo	ib.
472—478.	Yahia Alkadia, Son of Ismail, besieged in, and expelled from, Toledo by Alfonso	44
	Sensation produced among the Mohammedans by the Fall of that City	ib.
	Progress of Alfonso's Arms; the Mohammedans re- solve to implore the Aid of the Africans	45
450.	Yahia ben Ibrahim and Abdalla ben Yassim found the Sect of the Almoravides	47
465—478.	Yussef ben Taksin, first Emperor of the Almoravides.. He resolves to aid in defending Mohammedan Spain against the Christians	49
479.	He defeats Alfonso on the Plains of Zalaca	51

A. H.		Page
480—484.	Proceedings of Yusef characterized by Violence and Perfidy.....	52
	Fate of Mohammed King of Seville, and his Family...	53
485.	Annihilation of the Andalusian Kingdoms	54
	<i>2. Dynasty of the Almoravides.</i>	
487—496.	Yusef ben Taxfin	54
496—500.	His last Instructions to his Son Ali	55
500.	Ali ben Yusef.....	ib.
500—512.	His unsuccessful Hostilities against the Christians....	56
514.	The African Yoke never agreeable to the Moham- medans of Spain.....	ib.
	Mohammed ben Abdallah, a Fanatic or Heretic, vows the Destruction of the Sect	57
	In concert with Abdelmumen, he preaches against the Wickedness of its Chiefs	59
	He is compelled to flee from Morocco to Tinmal, in the Province of Suz.....	ib.
	He is saluted Mehedi.....	60
515—516.	His followers triumph over the Almoravides.....	ib.
517—519.	He fortifies the strong position of Tinmal	61
	Morocco besieged; but the Siege soon raised	62
	The Empire of the Almoravides in Spain is on the de- cline.....	ib.
523.	Death of Mohammed ben Abdallah; he is succeeded by Abdelmumen	63
523—536.	The Triumphs of the Almohades.....	64
	Further Decline of the Empire of the Almoravides in Spain	ib.
537.	Taxfin ben Ali.....	ib.
539.	His Reverses and tragical Death	65
540.	Ibrahim Abu Ishac	ib.
541.	His Capital taken, and himself put to Death.....	ib.
543—558.	The Christians and the Almohades strive for the Wreck of the African Empire in Spain.....	66
	<i>3. Dynasty of the Almohades.</i>	
543.	Abdelmumen	66
558.	Is surprised by Death amidst his vast Armaments for the Invasion of Spain	67
	Yusef Abu Yacub	ib.
558—572.	Is acknowledged by all Mohammedan Spain.	ib.
	Character of the Wars between the Christians and the Africans.....	68
572—583.	Yusef at length invades Portugal, and is killed before Santarem	ib.
583.	Yacub ben Yusef.....	69

ANALYTICAL AND CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

vii

A. H.		Page
591.	Triumphs over the Christians on the Plains of Alarcon	69
	Consequent Dissensions of the Christian Princes; Death of Yacub	70
595.	Mohammed Abu Abdalla	71
595—607.	His immense Preparations for the Invasion of Christian Spain	ib.
608.	He lays Siege to Salvatierra	ib.
	Splendid Victory of Navas de Tolosa	73
610.	Death of this Emperor	74
	Yussef Abu Yacub	75
620—622.	Is succeeded by Abul Melic Abdelwahid, and the latter by Abdalla Abu Mohammed	ib.
622.	Almamun Abu Ali, the next in Succession, abrogates the laws of the Mehedî	76
625—629.	Rapid Decline of the African Empire in Spain	ib.
	Its Wrecks the Subject of fierce Contention	77
630—635.	Mohammedan Spain agitated by several Pretenders to Sovereignty	78
	Foundation of a New Kingdom	ib.

CHAPTER II.

KINGDOM OF GRANADA. 1238—1492.

635.	Mohammed ben Alhamar	79
	His wise Administration	ib.
637—642.	Successes of San Fernando	80
641.	Aben Alhamar does homage to the Christian King ...	81
643.	Reduction of Carmona, and other Fortresses	82
644—645.	Siege and Conquest of Seville	83
645—650.	Enlightened Measures of Aben Alhamar	84
650—659.	He is discontented with his Vassalage, which he attempts to shake off	86
660—664.	Success declares for the Christians	87
665—670.	Mohammed's Transactions with some Rebels, and with Alfonso el Sabio	88
671.	His sudden Death	89
	Mohammed II. ben Mohammed	ib.
	He treads in the Footsteps of his able Father	ib.
672.	Visits the Christian Court of Seville	90
673.	Enters into an Alliance with Abu Yusef of Morocco, who arrives in Andalusia	ib.
674—694.	Wars between the Christians and the Mohammedans; Actions of Alfonso	91
701.	Death of Mohammed	94
	Mohammed III. Abu Abdalla	ib.

A. H.	Page
701—709. Labors, but in vain, for the Welfare of his People....	94
709. He is compelled to resign the Throne in favor of his Brother.....	95
Nasir Abu Abdalla	ib.
713. He too is the Victim of Rebellion after a stormy Reign of four Years.....	96
713—724. Ismail ben Ferag	97
His Wars with the Christians	ib.
725. His Injustice to one of his Officers, and consequent Assassination.....	98
Mohammed IV.	ib.
726, &c. His Transactions with his rebellious Subjects and his Christian Enemies.....	99
729. He invests and reduces Baena	ib.
730—733. He obtains an Army of African Auxiliaries, by whom he is assassinated near Gibraltar	ib.
Yussef Abul Hagiag	100
733—739. His Zeal for Justice.....	ib.
740. Calls in the Africans to assist him	101
741. Great Battle of Tarifa, fatal to the Moors.....	102
743—753. His Reverse, and Peace with Alfonso	103
753. His Assassination while at Prayers in the Mosque of Granada.....	104
His Character and Zeal for Religion	ib.
Mohammed V.	106
753—760. A Conspiracy compels him to seek Safety by Flight... ..	ib.
761. He visits Fez and obtains Aid.....	107
762—765. He lands at Gibraltar: after various changes of Fortune, the Usurper Abu Said is slain, and he is restored to his Throne	109
793. Yussef II. Abu Abdalla	ib.
794. His Son endeavors to dethrone him	110
799. His Death; he is succeeded by his younger Son	ib.
Mohammed VI. exiles his elder Brother Yussef to the Fortress of Salobrena	ib.
800—813. His Wars with the Christians	111
In his last Illness he commands the Execution of his Brother, who, however, escapes.....	ib.
813. Yussef III., with whom ends the Tranquillity of Granada	112
827—833. Mohammed VII. (Muley) is dethroned by his Cousin Mohammed VIII.....	ib.
He is restored by the Christians and Africans	ib.
833—837. His disastrous Wars with the Castilians	113
He is dethroned and restored	114
837—849. His singular Destiny, and final Disappearance from the Stage of Life.....	115

ANALYTICAL AND CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

ix

A. H.	Page
Mohammed IX. (ben Osmin)	115
851. He is distracted by a rival King	116
852—859. His Civil Wars; his last sanguinary Act, and sudden Disappearance	ib.
Mohammed X. (ben Ismail)	ib.
859—871. His unsuccessful Wars, and Death	117
Muley Ali Abul Hassan	ib.
871—883. Troubles of his Kingdom and Harem	118
883—887. His Wars with the Christians are unfortunate	119
His Son rebels, and is made King, under the name of Abu Abdalla	ib.
Civil War between Father and Son	ib.
889. A third Party excludes both, and proclaims Abdalla el Zagal	120
889—891. Alarming Progress of the Christian Arms	121
892. Important Siege of Malaga; its Fall	123
893—897. Continuation of Christian Triumphs	124
895. Siege and Conquest of Baza; Submission of Abdalla el Zagal	ib.
896. Abu Abdalla resolves to defend Granada	125
897. Fernando lays Siege to that Capital	ib.
Operations of the two Armies, and final Capitulation of Granada	127
Departure of Abu Abdalla, and triumphant Entry of the Christian Monarch	128

SECTION II.

CHRISTIAN SPAIN. 718—1516.

CHAPTER I.

THE ASTURIAS, LEON, AND CASTILE. 718—1516.

A. D. 1. *The Asturias and Leon.* 718—1037.

711—718. Many Christians resort to the Mountains of the Astu- rias and proclaim a King	129
718—737. Reign, Victories, and Death of Pelayo	130
737—739. Favila, his short Reign and tragical Death	132
739—757. Alfonso I., surnamed the <i>Catholic</i> , his Reign, Conquests, and Zeal for Religion	ib.
757—763. Fruela I., his stern Character and ultimate Assassina- tion	133
766—774. Aurelio, his obscure Reign—Was the infant Christian Kingdom sometimes tributary to the Mohammedans ?	134

A. D.	Page
774—783. Silo, his reign obscure as Aurelio's.	134
783—788. Mauregato; Tribute of the Hundred Damsels.	135
788—791. Bermudo I., or the <i>Deacon</i> , after a short Reign resigns the Throne to Alfonso.	136
791—842. Alfonso II., surnamed the <i>Chaste</i>	ib.
Fabulous Exploits and Existence of Bernardo del Carpio.	137
842—850. Ramiro I., his short but eventful Reign.	ib.
850—866. Ordone I., his Victories over the Arabs, &c.	138
866—872. Alfonso III., successfully crushes Rebellion.	ib.
873. He erects Navarre into an Hereditary Fief.	139
870—901. His successes over the Mohammedans.	ib.
907—910. He is compelled by his rebellious Subjects and Son to resign the Crown.	140
His last Exploits and Death.	ib.
910—914. Garcia.	141
914—921. Ordone II., his Successes over the Armies of Abderah- man.	ib.
921—923. His rigorous Punishment of four Counts of Castile.	142
923—925. Fruela II.	ib.
925—930. Alfonso IV.	ib.
930—950. Ramiro II., his Wars with the Mohammedans.	143
He vanquishes and subdues two rebellious Counts of Castile.	ib.
He resigns his Crown to his Son Ordone.	ib.
950—955. Ordone III. triumphs over his rebellious Subjects.	144
955—967. Sancho I., surnamed the <i>Fat</i> , his expulsion from his Kingdom.	145
He is restored by the troops of Abderahman.	ib.
967—982. Ramiro III., Troubles during his Minority.	146
His unamiable Character, and Death.	ib.
Fabulous Exploits of Fernan Gonzalez.	147
Origin of the Sovereignty of Castile.	148
982—999. Bermudo II., his most disastrous Reign.	ib.
999—1010. Alfonso V., his Minority.	149
1010—1026. His Efforts to repair the Disasters caused by the Inroads of Almanzor; Tragedy of the Count of Castile.	150
1026—1027. Disastrous Death of Alfonso before Viseo.	ib.
1027—1034. Bermudo III., his Dominions invaded by Sancho el Mayor.	151
1035. In the Division of Sancho's ample States, Castile falls to Fernando.	ib.
1036—1037. With Bermudo ends the Male Line of the Royal House of Leon.	ib.

2. *Separate Crowns of Leon and Castile.* 1026—1230.

A. D.	Page
1026—1035. Sancho el Mayor, first King of Castile	152
1035—1037. Fernando I., second King of Castile, who succeeds to the Throne of Leon	ib.
1037—1055. He gains the Affection of the Leonese; he triumphs over his Brother Don Garcia	153
1055—1058. He triumphs also over the Mohammedans	154
1058—1065. He carries his Arms into Andalusia and Valencia... Devotional Exercises of his last Days; his Death and high Character	155 ib.
1065. Alfonso VI. ascends the Throne of Leon, and San- cho II. that of Castile	156
1065—1071. Their Dissensions; Defeat and Exile of Alfonso	157
1072. Assassination of Don Sancho before Zamora	ib.
Alfonso takes Possession of both Kingdoms	158
1072—1085. Conquests of Alfonso; he takes Toledo	ib.
1085—1109. He confers his Lusitanian Conquests, as a Gift, on his Son-in-law Henry Count of Besançon, and Galicia on Alfonso Raymond	159
His Death and Character; his Policy in dividing his Dominions fatal	ib.
The Fabulous Exploits of the Cid Rodrigo de Bivar ..	ib.
1109—1111. Urraca, Daughter and Successor of Alfonso, quarrels with her Husband, Alfonso VII.; her criminal Conduct	160
1111—1114. Hostilities continue between the Royal Pair, until the Marriage is dissolved by the Pope	162
1114—1126. Her criminal Conduct and Death	ib.
Alfonso VIII. succeeds to the Crowns of Castile and Leon	163
1126—1140. His Transactions with the Kings of Navarre and Ara- gon; he assumes the Imperial Title	164
1140—1144. His iniquitous Contract with Raymond Count of Bar- celona	ib.
1144—1157. His Successes over the Mohammedans; his Death, Character, and Division of his States	165
Origin of the Military and Religious Order of Alcan- tara	ib.
1157. Fernando II. ascends the Throne of Leon, and San- cho III. that of Castile	166
1158. Sancho dies in a Year, and is succeeded by his infant Son, Alfonso III.	ib.
1158—1170. Troubles during the Minority of Alfonso; he marries Eleanor, Daughter of Henry II. King of England..	167
Various Wars of King Don Fernando	ib.

A. D.		Page
1158.	Origin of the Military and Religious Order of Calatrava	167
1161.	Origin of the Military and Religious Order of Santiago	ib.
1188.	Death of King Don Fernando, who is succeeded in the Throne of Leon by Alfonso IX.....	168
1188—1195.	Alfonso of Leon quarrels with his Cousin of Castile: he marries a Portuguese Princess; but the Marriage is dissolved.....	ib.
1197.	He next marries Berengaria, Princess of Castile; and this Union too is dissolved by the Pope	169
1204.	The Royal Parties reluctantly separate; the Legitimacy of their Children confirmed	170
1205—1212.	Dissensions, and subsequent Alliance of the two Alfonsos	ib.
1214.	Death of Alfonso of Castile, who is succeeded by his Son Enrique I.....	171
1214—1217.	Troubles occasioned by the Minority of Don Enrique Death of the young Prince; his Sister Berengaria secures the Crown of Castile for her Son Fernando..	172
1217—1219.	Fernando III., his Disputes with his Father, the King of Leon.....	173
1219, &c.	Conquests of Fernando over the Moors	174
1230.	Death of King Alfonso of Leon, who appoints his two Daughters his Successors.....	ib.
	Several Towns of Leon declare for Fernando.....	175
	Fernando takes Possession of the Kingdom, the Claims of the Infantes being abandoned; Consequent Union of the Crowns of Castile and Leon.....	ib.

3. *United Crowns of Castile and Leon. 1230—1516.*

1230—1252.	Fernando III., his Conquests over the Moors; his Death and Canonization	176
	Alfonso X., surnamed <i>El Sabio</i> , or the Learned.....	177
1252—1254.	His Transactions with the English respecting Gascony; Marriage of Edward Plantagenet with his Sister.....	ib.
1256.	Alfonso elected Emperor of Germany at the same time with Richard Duke of Cornwall.....	178
1256—1273.	His Efforts to gain the Imperial Throne, from which he is excluded by the Election of Count Rodolph..	ib.
1260—1272.	Dissatisfaction and Revolt of his Barons, and his criminal Indulgence towards them	179
	They retire into the Kingdom of Granada.....	180
1275.	Death of the Infante Fernando de la Cerda, and the Dispute respecting the Succession	181

A. D.	Page
1275—1280.	Troubles occasioned by the disputed Law of Succession; Alfonso commands the Murder of his Brother Fadrique..... 182
1281—1283.	Rebellion of his Son Don Sancho: Alfonso is universally forsaken..... 183
	Interference of the Pope in behalf of the Father, and return of many Rebels to their Duty..... ib.
1284.	Alfonso dies, excluding Sancho from the Throne; his Character..... 184
	Sancho IV..... 185
1284—1288.	Is the continual Sport of Rebellion..... ib.
1288—1295.	His Transactions with the Aragonese and his rebel Subjects; his Death..... 186
1295.	Fernando IV..... 187
1296.	Troubles respecting the Regency..... ib.
1296—1301.	Rebellious Conduct of some Nobles..... 188
1301—1305.	Bitter Disappointments of the Queen-Mother..... 189
1305—1312.	The Troubles of Fernando end only with his Life... ib.
1310.	Accusation and Suppression of the Templars..... 190
1312—1324.	Alfonso XI., Troubles during his Minority..... 191
1324.	He assumes the Administration of his Kingdom..... 192
1324—1338.	Internal Troubles..... 193
1338—1350.	Amours of Alfonso with Leonora de Guzman, by whom he has several illegitimate Children..... 194
1350.	Pedro the Cruel, the only legitimate Son of Alfonso.. ib.
1351.	He puts to death Leonora de Guzman..... ib.
	He murders the Adelantado Garcilasso de la Vega.. 195
1352.	His Connexion with Maria de Padilla..... 196
1353.	His Marriage with Blanche de Bourbon, whom he speedily abandons for his Mistress..... 197
1354.	He imposes on Doña Juana de Castro..... 198
	He transfers his Queen Blanche from the Fortress of Arevalo to Toledo; Interest excited by her Fate.. ib.
	His Transactions with his Barons who armed in Defence of Blanche..... 199
1355.	He seizes on Toledo by Force of Arms, and transfers his Queen to the Fortress of Siguenza..... ib.
1355—1358.	His Wars with the King of Aragon; his Murder of his Brother Fadrique, Grand Master of Santiago.. 200
	He murders Don Juan, Infante of Aragon..... 202
1359—1361.	Other Murders..... ib.
	Tragical Fate of Blanche de Bourbon..... 203
1362.	He attempts to persuade the Cortes that his Children by Maria de Padilla are legitimate..... 204
1363—1366.	His Alliance with the Black Prince against the French, and his Bastard Brother Enrique, who invades Castile..... ib.

A. D.		Page
1366.	He makes no serious Attempt to defend his tottering Crown.....	205
	He leaves Seville, and by way of Portugal passes into Galicia	ib.
	He murders the Archbishop of Santiago, and embarks for Bayonne, to join the Prince of Wales.....	206
	The Black Prince undertakes to restore him to the Throne	ib.
	Enrique acknowledged by all Spain, except Galicia, which he invades	207
1367.	Prince Edward passes the Pyrenees, crosses Navarre, and penetrates into Castile	208
	His Victory over Enrique, and consequent Restoration of Pedro	209
	Pedro resumes his cruel Habits, and disgusts his Subjects.....	ib.
	Enrique again invades the Kingdom	210
1368.	Success of the Invader; Pedro throws himself into the Fortress of Montiel	211
1369.	Perfidy of Bertrand du Guesclin; Murder of Pedro..	212
	Character of that Prince.	213
	Enrique II.....	214
1370—1372.	His Wars with Portugal, and his Struggle with the Partisans of Pedro.	ib.
1372—1379.	Troubles during the remainder of his Reign	215
1379.	Juan I.....	216
1380—1383.	His Transactions with Portugal, &c.....	ib.
1383—1385.	His Defeat by the Portuguese at Aljubarota.....	218
1385—1388.	His Transactions with the Duke of Lancaster.....	219
1388.	Peace between the two Princes by the Marriage of their Children	220
1390.	Death of Juan I.....	ib.
	Enrique III.	221
1390—1393.	Troubles during his Minority.....	ib.
1393—1399.	He assumes the Government; Continuance of Troubles	222
1400—1407.	His excellent Intentions, and Death	ib.
1407—1410.	Juan II., and Regency of his Uncle Fernando	223
1410—1419.	Fernando succeeds to the Throne of Aragon.....	ib.
1419—1421.	Weakness of Juan; Ascendency of his Favorite Don Alvaro de Luna.....	224
	Violence of the Infante Fernando, a Relation of the King, who displaces Alvaro	225
1421.	Tyranny of Fernando over the King.....	ib.
1421—1425.	Restoration of Don Alvaro.....	226
1426—1428.	Ascendency, Persecution, Exile, and second Restoration of this Favorite	227

ANALYTICAL AND CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

XV

A. D.		Page
1429.	Transactions of Juan with Aragon and Navarre.....	228
1430—1431.	Continued Favor of Alvaro; consequent Jealousy of the Castilian Nobles.....	ib.
1441—1445.	Internal Troubles.....	229
1445—1453.	Decline of Don Alvaro's Favor with the King.....	230
1453.	To Rashness he adds Murder.....	231
	His Arrest and Execution.....	232
	His Character.....	233
1454.	Death of Juan.....	ib.
	Enrique IV., surnamed the <i>Impotent</i>	ib.
1455—1459.	Disensions in his Kingdom and Palace.....	234
1460—1464.	Civil War.....	235
1464—1465.	Transactions of Enrique with his rebellious Subjects.....	ib.
1465.	Extraordinary Scene at Avila.....	236
1465—1469.	Horrid State of Anarchy.....	237
1469.	Marriage of Isabel, the King's Sister, with Fernando of Aragon, King of Sicily.....	239
1469—1474.	Two Parties are in favor of Isabel; the other of the King's pretended Daughter Juana.....	ib.
	Death of Juan, who declare Juana his Successor....	240
1474.	Fernando V. and Isabel are proclaimed.....	ib.
1475.	A Party of Barons espouse the Cause of Juana.....	241
1475—1479.	They call in the Aid of the Portuguese King; are forced to seek Peace.....	242
1479.	Fernando succeeds to the Crown of Aragon.....	243
	Zeal of Fernando and Isabel for the Administration of Justice.....	ib.
1480—1484.	Establishment of the Inquisition.....	244
1492—1498.	Persecution of the Jews.....	245
1499—1502.	Persecution of the Mohammedans, many of whom at length are expelled from Granada.....	247
1484—1494.	Zeal of Fernando for the Administration of Justice..	249
1492—1494.	Discovery of the New World by Columbus; Disputes with Portugal respecting the Right of Discovery and Conquest.....	250
1497—1500.	Domestic Sorrows of Fernando and Isabel.....	251
1504.	Death and Character of the Queen.....	252
	Juana and Philip I.....	253
1504—1506.	Fernando fills the Regency; Efforts of some Castilian Barons to snatch it from his Hands.....	254
	Arrival of Philip and Juana in Spain: profligate Behavior of the former.....	255
	Fernando at length resigns the Regency.....	256
	Death of Philip, and childish grief of Juana.....	ib.
1506—1507.	New Disputes respecting the Regency, which is at length again conferred on Fernando.....	257
1507—1512.	His second Administration equally glorious.....	ib.

A. D.		Page
1512.	His Invasion of Navarre	258
1516.	His Death and Character	ib.

APPENDIX.

A.	Generosity of Narvaez	261
B.	Inauguration of Pelayo	262
C.	Miracle of Covadunga	ib.
D.	Bernardo del Carpio	265
E.	Victory of Clavijo	266
F.	Count Fernan Gonzalez	268
G.	Two notable Miracles	269
	1. <i>Ataulfus and the Bull</i>	ib.
	2. <i>Mohammed and his Christian Bride</i>	270
H.	The Cid Rodrigo Diaz de Bivar, surnamed El Campeador....	272
I.	Alfonso's Punishment	284

TABLE I.

FOR THE CONVERSION OF MOHAMMEDAN INTO CHRISTIAN TIME,

Being the Correspondence of the Lunar Years of the Mohammedans with the Solar Years of the Christians, from the Hegira, or Flight of Mahomet, July 15, A. D. 622, to A. D. 1500.

N. B. Years thus marked * are Embolical.

A. H.	Begun.	A. D.	A. H.	Begun.	A. D.	A. H.	Begun.	A. D.
1	July	15. 622	*40	May	16. 660	79	Mar.	19. 698
*2	—	4. 623	41	—	6. 661	80	—	8. 699
3	June	23. 624	42	April	25. 662	*81	Feb.	25. 700
4	—	14. 625	*43	—	14. 663	82	—	14. 701
*5	—	1. 626	44	—	3. 664	83	—	3. 702
6	May	22. 627	45	Mar.	23. 665	*84	Jan.	23. 703
*7	—	10. 628	*46	—	12. 666	85	—	13. 704
8	April	30. 629	47	Mar.	2. 667	*86	—	1. 705
9	—	19. 630	*48	Feb.	19. 668	87	Dec.	22. 705
*10	—	8. 631	49	—	8. 669	88	—	11. 706
11	Mar.	28. 632	50	Jan.	28. 670	*89	Nov.	30. 707
12	—	17. 633	*51	—	17. 671	90	—	19. 708
*13	—	6. 634	52	—	7. 672	91	—	8. 709
14	Feb.	24. 635	53	Dec.	25. 672	*92	Oct.	28. 710
15	—	13. 636	*54	—	15. 673	93	—	18. 711
*16	—	1. 637	55	—	5. 674	94	—	6. 712
17	Jan.	22. 638	*56	Nov.	24. 675	*95	Sept.	25. 713
*18	—	11. 639	57	—	13. 676	96	—	15. 714
19	—	1. 640	58	—	2. 677	*97	—	4. 715
20	Dec.	20. 640	*59	Oct.	22. 678	98	Aug.	24. 716
*21	—	9. 641	60	—	12. 679	99	—	13. 717
22	Nov.	29. 642	61	Sept.	30. 680	100	—	2. 718
23	—	18. 643	*62	—	19. 681	*101	July	23. 719
*24	—	6. 644	63	—	9. 682	102	—	11. 720
25	Oct.	27. 645	64	Aug.	29. 683	*103	June	30. 721
*26	—	17. 646	*65	—	17. 684	104	—	20. 722
27	—	6. 647	66	—	7. 685	105	—	9. 723
28	Sept.	24. 648	*67	July	27. 686	*106	May	28. 724
*29	—	13. 649	68	—	17. 687	107	—	18. 725
30	—	3. 650	69	—	5. 688	*108	—	7. 726
31	Aug.	23. 651	*70	June	24. 689	109	April	27. 727
*32	—	11. 652	71	—	14. 690	110	—	15. 728
33	—	1. 653	*72	—	3. 691	*111	—	4. 729
34	July	21. 654	*73	May	22. 692	112	Mar.	25. 730
*35	—	10. 655	74	—	12. 693	113	—	14. 731
36	June	29. 656	75	—	1. 694	*114	—	2. 732
*37	—	18. 657	*76	April	20. 695	115	Feb.	20. 733
38	—	8. 658	77	—	9. 696	*116	—	9. 734
39	May	28. 659	*78	Mar.	29. 697	117	Jan.	30. 735

TABLE FOR THE CONVERSION OF

A. H.	Begun.	A. D.	A. H.	Begun.	A. D.	A. H.	Begun.	A. D.
118	Jan.	19. 736	173	May	30. 789	*228	Oct.	9. 842
*119	—	7. 737	*174	—	19. 790	229	Sept.	20. 843
120	Dec.	28. 737	175	—	9. 791	230	—	17. 844
121	—	17. 738	*176	April	27. 792	*231	—	6. 845
*122	—	6. 739	177	—	17. 793	232	Aug.	27. 846
123	Nov.	25. 740	178	—	6. 794	233	—	16. 847
124	—	14. 781	*179	Mar.	26. 795	*234	—	4. 848
*125	—	3. 742	180	—	15. 796	235	July	25. 849
126	Oct.	24. 743	181	—	4. 797	*236	—	14. 850
*127	—	12. 744	*182	Feb.	21. 798	237	—	4. 851
128	—	2. 745	183	—	11. 799	238	June	22. 852
129	Sept.	21. 746	184	Jan.	31. 800	*239	—	11. 853
*130	—	10. 747	*185	—	19. 801	240	—	1. 854
131	Aug.	30. 748	186	—	9. 802	241	May	21. 855
132	—	19. 749	*187	Dec.	29. 802	*242	—	9. 856
*133	—	8. 750	188	—	19. 803	243	April	29. 857
134	July	29. 751	189	—	7. 804	244	—	18. 858
135	—	17. 752	*190	Nov.	26. 805	*245	—	7. 859
*136	—	6. 753	191	—	16. 806	246	Mar.	27. 860
137	June	26. 754	192	—	5. 807	*247	—	16. 861
*138	—	15. 755	*193	Oct.	24. 808	248	—	6. 862
139	—	4. 756	194	—	14. 809	249	Feb.	23. 863
140	May	24. 757	195	—	3. 810	*250	—	12. 864
*141	—	13. 758	*196	Sept.	22. 811	251	—	1. 865
142	—	3. 759	197	—	11. 812	252	Jan.	21. 866
143	April	21. 760	*198	Aug.	31. 813	*253	—	10. 867
*144	—	10. 761	199	—	21. 814	254	Dec.	31. 867
145	Mar.	31. 762	200	—	10. 815	255	—	19. 868
*146	—	20. 763	*201	July	29. 816	*256	—	8. 869
147	—	9. 764	202	—	19. 817	257	Nov.	28. 870
148	Feb.	26. 765	203	—	8. 818	*258	—	17. 871
*149	—	15. 766	*204	June	27. 819	259	—	6. 872
150	—	5. 767	205	—	16. 820	260	Oct.	26. 873
151	Jan.	26. 768	*206	—	5. 821	*261	—	15. 874
*152	—	13. 769	207	May	26. 822	262	—	5. 875
153	—	3. 770	208	—	15. 823	263	Sept.	23. 876
154	Dec.	23. 770	*209	—	3. 824	*264	—	12. 877
*155	—	12. 771	210	April	23. 825	265	—	2. 878
156	—	1. 772	211	—	12. 826	*266	Aug.	22. 879
*157	Nov.	20. 773	*212	—	1. 827	267	—	11. 880
158	—	10. 774	213	Mar.	21. 828	268	July	31. 881
159	Oct.	30. 775	214	—	10. 829	*269	—	20. 882
*160	—	18. 776	*215	Feb.	27. 830	270	—	10. 883
161	—	8. 777	216	—	17. 831	271	June	28. 884
162	Sept.	27. 778	*217	—	6. 832	*272	—	17. 885
*163	—	16. 779	218	Jan.	26. 833	273	—	7. 886
164	—	5. 780	219	—	15. 834	274	May	27. 887
165	Aug.	25. 781	220	—	4. 835	*275	—	15. 888
*166	—	14. 782	221	Dec.	25. 835	276	—	5. 889
167	—	4. 783	222	—	13. 836	*277	April	24. 890
*168	July	23. 784	*223	—	2. 837	278	—	14. 891
169	—	13. 785	224	Nov.	22. 838	279	—	2. 892
170	—	2. 786	225	—	11. 839	*280	Mar.	22. 893
*171	June	21. 787	*226	Oct.	30. 840	281	—	12. 894
172	—	10. 788	227	—	20. 841	282	—	1. 895

MOHAMMEDAN INTO CHRISTIAN TIME.

xix

A. H.	Begun.	A. D.	A. H.	Begun.	A. D.	A. H.	Begun.	A. D.
*283	Feb. 18.	896	338	June 30.	949	393	Nov. 9.	1002
284	— 7.	897	339	— 19.	950	394	Oct. 29.	1003
285	Jan. 27.	898	*340	— 8.	951	*395	— 17.	1004
*286	— 16.	899	341	May 28.	952	396	— 7.	1005
287	— 6.	900	342	— 17.	953	*397	Sept. 26.	1006
*288	Dec. 25.	900	*343	— 4.	954	398	— 16.	1007
289	— 15.	901	344	April 26.	955	399	— 4.	1008
290	— 4.	902	345	— 14.	956	*400	Aug. 24.	1009
*291	Nov. 23.	903	*346	— 3.	957	401	— 14.	1010
292	— 12.	904	347	Mar. 24.	958	402	— 3.	1011
293	— 1.	905	*348	— 13.	959	*403	July 22.	1012
*294	Oct. 21.	906	349	— 2.	960	404	— 12.	1013
295	— 11.	907	350	Feb. 19.	961	405	— 1.	1014
*296	Sept. 29.	908	*351	— 8.	962	*406	June 20.	1015
297	— 19.	909	352	Jan. 29.	963	407	— 9.	1016
298	— 8.	910	353	— 18.	964	*408	May 29.	1017
*299	Aug. 28.	911	*354	— 6.	965	409	— 19.	1018
300	— 17.	912	355	Dec. 27.	965	410	— 8.	1019
301	— 6.	913	356	— 16.	966	*411	April 26.	1020
*302	July 26.	914	*357	— 6.	967	412	— 16.	1021
303	— 16.	915	358	Nov. 24.	968	413	— 5.	1022
304	— 4.	916	*359	— 13.	969	*414	Mar. 25.	1023
*305	June 23.	917	360	— 3.	970	415	— 14.	1024
306	— 13.	918	361	Oct. 23.	971	*416	— 3.	1025
*307	— 2.	919	*362	— 11.	972	417	Feb. 21.	1026
308	May 22.	920	363	— 1.	973	418	— 10.	1027
309	— 11.	921	364	Sept. 20.	974	*419	Jan. 30.	1028
*310	April 30.	922	*365	— 9.	975	420	— 19.	1029
311	— 20.	923	366	Aug. 29.	976	421	— 8.	1030
312	— 8.	924	*367	— 18.	977	*422	Dec. 28.	1030
*313	Mar. 28.	925	368	— 8.	978	423	— 18.	1031
314	— 18.	926	369	July 28.	979	424	— 6.	1032
315	— 7.	927	*370	— 16.	980	*425	Nov. 25.	1033
*316	Feb. 24.	928	371	— 6.	981	426	— 15.	1034
317	— 13.	929	372	June 25.	982	*427	— 4.	1035
*318	— 2.	930	*373	— 14.	983	428	Oct. 24.	1036
319	Jan. 23.	931	374	— 3.	984	429	— 13.	1037
320	— 12.	932	375	May 23.	985	*430	— 2.	1038
*321	Dec. 31.	932	*376	— 12.	986	431	Sept. 22.	1039
322	— 21.	933	377	— 2.	987	432	— 10.	1040
323	— 10.	934	*378	April 20.	988	*433	Aug. 30.	1041
*324	Nov. 29.	935	379	— 10.	989	434	— 20.	1042
325	— 18.	936	380	Mar. 30.	990	435	— 9.	1043
*326	— 7.	937	*381	— 19.	991	*436	July 28.	1044
327	Oct. 28.	938	382	— 8.	992	437	— 18.	1045
328	— 17.	939	383	Feb. 25.	993	*438	— 7.	1046
*329	— 5.	940	*384	— 14.	994	439	June 27.	1047
330	Sept. 25.	941	385	— 4.	995	440	— 15.	1048
331	— 14.	942	*386	Jan. 24.	996	*441	— 4.	1049
*332	— 3.	943	387	— 13.	997	442	May 25.	1050
333	Aug. 23.	944	388	— 1.	998	443	— 14.	1051
334	— 12.	945	*389	Dec. 22.	998	*444	— 2.	1052
*335	— 1.	946	390	— 12.	999	445	April 22.	1053
336	July 22.	947	391	Nov. 30.	1000	*446	— 11.	1054
*337	— 10.	948	*392	— 19.	1001	447	— 1.	1055

A. H.	Begun.	A. D.	A. H.	Begun.	A. D.	A. H.	Begun.	A. D.
448	Mar.	20. 1056	503	July	30. 1109	*558	Dec.	9. 1162
*449	—	9. 1057	*504	—	19. 1110	559	Nov.	29. 1163
450	Feb.	27. 1058	505	—	9. 1111	560	—	17. 1164
451	—	16. 1059	*506	June	27. 1112	*561	—	6. 1165
*452	—	5. 1060	507	—	17. 1113	562	Oct.	27. 1166
453	Jan.	25. 1061	508	—	6. 1114	563	—	16. 1167
454	—	14. 1062	*509	May	26. 1115	*564	—	4. 1168
*455	—	3. 1063	510	—	15. 1116	565	Sept.	24. 1169
456	Dec.	24. 1063	511	—	4. 1117	*566	—	13. 1170
*457	—	12. 1064	*512	April	23. 1118	567	—	3. 1171
458	—	2. 1065	513	—	13. 1119	568	Aug.	22. 1172
459	Nov.	21. 1066	514	—	1. 1120	*569	—	11. 1173
*460	—	10. 1067	*515	Mar.	21. 1121	570	—	1. 1174
461	Oct.	30. 1068	516	—	11. 1122	571	July	21. 1175
462	—	19. 1069	*517	Feb.	28. 1123	*572	—	9. 1176
*463	—	8. 1070	518	—	18. 1124	573	June	29. 1177
464	Sept.	28. 1071	519	—	6. 1125	574	—	18. 1178
465	—	16. 1072	*520	Jan.	26. 1126	*575	—	7. 1179
*466	—	5. 1073	521	—	16. 1127	576	May	27. 1180
467	Aug.	26. 1074	522	—	5. 1128	*577	—	16. 1181
*468	—	15. 1075	*523	Dec.	24. 1128	578	—	6. 1182
469	—	4. 1076	524	—	14. 1129	579	April	25. 1183
470	July	24. 1077	525	—	3. 1130	*580	—	13. 1184
*471	—	13. 1078	*526	Nov.	22. 1131	581	—	3. 1185
472	—	3. 1079	527	—	11. 1132	582	Mar.	23. 1186
473	June	21. 1080	*528	Oct.	31. 1133	*583	—	12. 1187
*474	—	10. 1081	529	—	21. 1134	584	—	1. 1188
475	May	31. 1082	530	—	10. 1135	585	Feb.	18. 1189
*476	—	20. 1083	*531	Sept.	28. 1136	*586	—	7. 1190
477	—	9. 1084	532	—	18. 1137	587	Jan.	28. 1191
478	April	28. 1085	533	—	7. 1138	*588	—	17. 1192
*479	—	17. 1086	*534	Aug.	27. 1139	589	—	6. 1193
480	—	7. 1087	535	—	16. 1140	590	Dec.	26. 1193
481	Mar.	26. 1088	*536	—	5. 1141	*591	—	15. 1194
*482	—	15. 1089	537	July	26. 1142	592	—	5. 1195
483	—	5. 1090	538	—	15. 1143	593	Nov.	23. 1196
484	Feb.	22. 1091	*539	—	3. 1144	*594	—	12. 1197
*485	—	11. 1092	540	June	23. 1145	595	—	2. 1198
486	Jan.	31. 1093	541	—	12. 1146	596	Oct.	22. 1199
*487	—	20. 1094	*542	—	1. 1147	*597	—	11. 1200
488	—	10. 1095	543	May	21. 1148	598	Sept.	30. 1201
489	Dec.	30. 1095	544	—	10. 1149	*599	—	19. 1202
*490	—	18. 1096	*545	April	29. 1150	600	—	9. 1203
491	—	8. 1097	546	—	19. 1151	601	Aug.	28. 1204
492	Nov.	27. 1098	*547	—	7. 1152	*602	—	17. 1205
*493	—	16. 1099	548	Mar.	28. 1153	603	—	7. 1206
494	—	5. 1100	549	—	17. 1154	604	July	27. 1207
495	Oct.	25. 1101	*550	—	6. 1155	*605	—	15. 1208
*496	—	14. 1102	551	Feb.	24. 1156	606	—	5. 1209
497	—	4. 1103	552	—	12. 1157	*607	June	24. 1210
*498	Sept.	22. 1104	*553	—	1. 1158	608	—	14. 1211
499	—	12. 1105	554	Jan.	22. 1159	609	—	2. 1212
500	—	1. 1106	555	—	11. 1160	*610	May	22. 1213
*501	Aug.	21. 1107	*556	Dec.	30. 1160	611	—	12. 1214
502	—	10. 1108	557	—	20. 1161	612	—	1. 1215

MOHAMMEDAN INTO CHRISTIAN TIME.

xxi

A. H.	Begun.	A. D.	A. H.	Begun.	A. D.	A. H.	Begun.	A. D.
*613	April 19.	1216	668	Aug. 30.	1269	723	Jan. 9.	1323
614	— 9.	1217	669	— 19.	1270	724	Dec. 29.	1323
615	Mar. 29.	1218	*670	— 8.	1271	*725	— 17.	1324
*616	— 18.	1219	671	July 28.	1272	726	— 7.	1325
617	— 7.	1220	672	— 17.	1273	*727	Nov. 26.	1326
*618	Feb. 24.	1221	*673	— 6.	1274	728	— 16.	1327
619	— 14.	1222	674	June 26.	1275	729	— 4.	1328
620	— 3.	1223	675	— 14.	1276	*730	Oct. 24.	1329
*621	Jan. 23.	1224	*676	— 3.	1277	731	— 14.	1330
622	— 12.	1225	677	May 24.	1278	732	— 3.	1331
623	— 1.	1226	678	— 13.	1279	*733	Sept. 21.	1332
*624	Dec. 21.	1226	*679	— 2.	1280	734	— 11.	1333
625	— 11.	1227	680	April 21.	1281	735	Aug. 31.	1334
*626	Nov. 29.	1228	*681	— 10.	1282	*736	— 20.	1335
627	— 19.	1229	682	Mar. 31.	1283	737	— 9.	1336
628	— 8.	1230	683	— 19.	1284	*738	July 29.	1337
*629	Oct. 28.	1231	*684	— 8.	1285	739	— 19.	1338
630	— 17.	1232	685	Feb. 26.	1286	740	— 8.	1339
631	— 6.	1233	686	— 15.	1287	*741	June 26.	1340
*632	Sept. 25.	1234	*687	— 5.	1288	742	— 16.	1341
633	— 15.	1235	688	Jan. 24.	1289	743	— 5.	1342
634	— 3.	1236	*689	— 13.	1290	*744	May 25.	1343
*635	Aug. 23.	1237	690	— 3.	1291	745	— 14.	1344
636	— 13.	1238	691	Dec. 23.	1291	*746	— 3.	1345
*637	— 2.	1239	*692	— 11.	1292	747	April 23.	1346
638	July 22.	1240	693	— 1.	1293	748	— 12.	1347
639	— 11.	1241	694	Nov. 20.	1294	*749	Mar. 31.	1348
*640	June 30.	1242	*695	— 9.	1295	750	— 21.	1349
641	— 20.	1243	696	Oct. 29.	1296	751	— 10.	1350
642	— 8.	1244	*697	— 18.	1297	*752	Feb. 27.	1351
*643	May 28.	1245	698	— 8.	1298	753	— 17.	1352
644	— 18.	1246	699	Sept. 27.	1299	754	— 5.	1353
645	— 7.	1247	*700	— 15.	1300	*755	Jan. 25.	1354
*646	April 25.	1248	701	— 5.	1301	756	— 15.	1355
647	— 15.	1249	702	Aug. 25.	1302	*757	— 4.	1356
*648	— 4.	1250	*703	— 14.	1303	758	Dec. 24.	1356
649	Mar. 25.	1251	704	— 3.	1304	759	— 13.	1357
650	— 13.	1252	705	July 23.	1305	*760	— 2.	1358
*651	— 2.	1253	*706	— 12.	1306	761	Nov. 22.	1359
652	Feb. 20.	1254	707	— 2.	1307	762	— 10.	1360
653	— 9.	1255	*708	June 20.	1308	*763	Oct. 30.	1361
*654	Jan. 29.	1256	709	— 10.	1309	764	— 20.	1362
655	— 18.	1257	710	May 30.	1310	765	— 9.	1363
*656	— 7.	1258	*711	— 19.	1311	*766	Sept. 27.	1364
657	Dec. 28.	1258	712	— 8.	1312	767	— 17.	1365
658	— 17.	1259	713	April 27.	1313	*768	— 6.	1366
*659	— 5.	1260	*714	— 16.	1314	769	Aug. 27.	1367
660	Nov. 25.	1261	715	— 6.	1315	770	— 15.	1368
661	— 14.	1262	*716	Mar. 25.	1316	*771	— 4.	1369
*662	— 3.	1263	717	— 15.	1317	772	July 25.	1370
663	Oct. 23.	1264	718	— 4.	1318	773	— 14.	1371
664	— 12.	1265	*719	Feb. 20.	1319	*774	— 2.	1372
*665	— 1.	1266	720	— 11.	1320	775	June 23.	1373
666	Sept. 21.	1267	721	Jan. 30.	1321	*776	— 11.	1374
*667	— 9.	1268	*722	— 19.	1322	777	— 1.	1375

A. H.	Begun.	A. D.	A. H.	Begun.	A. D.	A. H.	Begun.	A. D.
778	May	20. 1376	821	Feb.	7. 1418	*864	Oct.	27. 1459
*779	—	9. 1377	822	Jan.	27. 1419	865	—	16. 1460
780	April	29. 1378	*823	—	16. 1420	*866	—	5. 1461
781	—	18. 1379	824	—	5. 1421	867	Sept.	25. 1462
*782	—	6. 1380	825	Dec.	25. 1421	868	—	14. 1463
783	Mar.	27. 1381	*826	—	14. 1422	*869	—	2. 1464
784	—	16. 1382	827	—	4. 1423	870	Aug.	23. 1465
*785	—	5. 1383	*828	Nov.	22. 1424	871	—	12. 1466
786	Feb.	23. 1384	829	—	12. 1425	*872	—	1. 1467
787	—	11. 1385	830	—	1. 1426	873	July	21. 1468
*788	—	1. 1386	*831	Oct.	21. 1427	874	—	10. 1469
789	Jan.	21. 1387	832	—	10. 1428	*875	June	29. 1470
*790	—	10. 1388	833	Sept.	29. 1429	876	—	19. 1471
791	Dec.	30. 1388	*834	—	18. 1430	*877	—	7. 1472
792	—	19. 1389	835	—	8. 1431	878	May	28. 1473
*793	—	8. 1390	*836	Aug.	27. 1432	879	—	17. 1474
794	Nov.	28. 1391	837	—	17. 1433	*880	—	6. 1475
795	—	16. 1392	838	—	6. 1434	881	April	25. 1476
*796	—	5. 1393	*839	July	26. 1435	882	—	14. 1477
797	Oct.	26. 1394	840	—	15. 1436	*883	—	3. 1478
*798	—	15. 1395	841	—	4. 1437	884	Mar.	24. 1479
799	—	4. 1396	*842	June	23. 1438	885	—	12. 1480
800	Sept.	23. 1397	843	—	13. 1439	*886	—	1. 1481
*801	—	12. 1398	844	—	1. 1440	887	Feb.	19. 1482
802	—	2. 1399	*845	May	21. 1441	*888	—	8. 1483
803	Aug.	21. 1400	846	—	11. 1442	889	Jan.	29. 1484
*804	—	10. 1401	*847	April	30. 1443	890	—	17. 1485
805	July	31. 1402	848	—	19. 1444	*891	—	6. 1486
*806	—	20. 1403	849	—	8. 1445	892	Dec.	27. 1486
807	—	9. 1404	*850	Mar.	28. 1446	893	—	16. 1487
808	June	28. 1405	851	—	18. 1447	*894	—	4. 1488
*809	—	17. 1406	852	—	6. 1448	895	Nov.	24. 1489
810	—	7. 1407	*853	Feb.	23. 1449	*896	—	13. 1490
811	May	26. 1408	854	—	13. 1450	897	—	3. 1491
*812	—	15. 1409	855	—	2. 1451	898	Oct.	22. 1492
813	—	5. 1410	*856	Jan.	22. 1452	*899	—	11. 1493
814	April	24. 1411	857	—	11. 1453	900	—	1. 1494
*815	—	12. 1412	*858	Dec.	31. 1453	901	Sept.	20. 1495
816	—	2. 1413	859	—	21. 1454	*902	—	8. 1496
*817	Mar.	22. 1414	860	—	10. 1455	903	Aug.	29. 1497
818	—	12. 1415	*861	Nov.	28. 1456	904	—	18. 1498
819	Feb.	29. 1416	862	—	18. 1457	*905	—	7. 1499
*820	—	17. 1417	863	—	7. 1458	906	July	27. 1500

OBSERVATIONS ON THE PRECEDING TABLE.

The utility of the preceding Table is too apparent to require exposing. It will serve as a key to the history, not of Spain only, but of all Mohammedan kingdoms. It lays claim to scrupulous accuracy; an advantage the more valuable, when we consider that, in adapting the chronology of the Arabs to that of the Christians, *all* historians previous to Pagi and Masdeu have committed considerable errors,—none more than those of Spain. A few observations will make the subject better understood.

The lunar year of the Arabs consists, like our solar one, of 12 months :—

Months.	Days.	Months.	Days.
I. Moharram.....	30	VII. Regeb.....	30
II. Safir.....	29	VIII. Shaffan.....	29
III. Rabia I.....	30	IX. Ramdan.....	30
IV. Rabia II.....	29	X. Xawal.....	29
V. Jumadi I.....	30	XI. Dilcada.....	30
VI. Jumadi II.....	29	XII. Dulcagiath.....	29

Making in all 354 days. The reason of the alternate numbers is, that a revolution of the moon occupies 29 days and 12 hours (the excess of a few minutes over the hours is about to be noticed); in other words, two of them occupy 59 days.

But the preceding is an *ordinary* year. Like us, the Mohammedans have also their *embolical* or *intercalary* years, arising from the excess of 44 minutes above the 29 days 12 hours in the lunar revolution. This excess of 44 minutes in every month amounts, in 12 months, to $44 \times 12 = 528$ minutes, or 8 hours 48 minutes. Now, as this fraction of about one third of a day could not be made available annually, the Mohammedans have assumed a period of 30 years, at the expiration of which no fraction would remain; because $528 \times 30 = 15840$ minutes = 264 hours = 11 days. Hence in every 30 years there are 11 surplus days, which are intercalated with them; about every third year having an additional day. This day is always added to the last month, Dulcagiath, which accordingly has 30 days instead of 29; and the embolistic year itself has necessarily 355 days instead of 354.

Hence the ordinary lunar year contains 11 days fewer than our solar year; the embolistic year 10 days fewer: but if our solar year happen to be a bissextile (in other words, if divisible by 4), there will be a difference of 12 days in the ordinary (366—354), and of 11 in the embolistic (366—355). Hence, too, the gross miscalculations of the old Spanish chroniclers, who, assuming the Mohammedan year as equal to the Christian, introduced sad blundering into chronology.

To how great a sum this difference between the solar and lunar years may amount in time, will be apparent from one or two calculations. Let us first take a period of sixty years, as that period contains 22 intercalary days of the Arabs, and 15 bissextiles of the Christians.

Mohammedan Years.	Christian Years.
354	365
60	60
<hr/> 21240	<hr/> 21900
Add 22 embolistic days.	Add 15 days for so many bissextiles.
<hr/> 21262	<hr/> 21915
	<hr/> 21915
	<hr/> 21262

And the difference will be 653 days, or above one year and three quarters.

Mohammedan Time.

Again, in 720 years:—

720	3,0) 72,0
354	
<hr/>	<hr/>
2880	24 periods of 30 years.
3600	11
2160	<hr/>
<hr/>	264 embolistic days.
254880	
264 embolical days.	
<hr/>	
255144	
<hr/>	

Christian Time.

720	4) 720
365	
<hr/>	<hr/>
3600	180 embolical days.
4320	
2160	
<hr/>	
262800	262960
180	255144
<hr/>	<hr/>
262960	
	Difference 7836 days.

$$7836 \div 365.25 = 21 \text{ solar years } 165.75 \text{ days.}$$

Now, to make the calculation agree with the Table, look for A. H. 720, which will be found to end Jan. 29, A. D. 1321. As the year, however, commenced July 15, it must also end July 15. Now, from that day A. D. 622, to the same day A. D. 1321, are 699 years; but from these 699 years we must subtract the days *above* the 720 Mohammedan years, viz. from Jan. 29 to July 15, before we can determine the exact quantity of solar time contained in those years. From Jan. 29, 1321, to July 15 in the same year, are 166 days. If these days are deducted from the 699 years, we shall have 698 years 199 days. Hence

Years.	Days.
from 720	0
take 698	199
<hr/>	<hr/>

and the difference, 21 166, is the same as before, with the exception of an insignificant fraction.

From these calculations, it is evident that a Table which thus greatly abridges the labor of computation is invaluable. Suppose the reader of Abu Abdalla should find (*Vestis Acu Picta*, Apud Casiri, Bibliotheca Arab.-Hisp. tom. ii. p. 182,) that Tarik ben Zeyad disembarked in Spain A. H. 92, the eighth day of the moon Regeb; how ascertain the solar date, except by a most laborious comparison of the Christian and Mohammedan years, beginning with the first of the Hegira? If, to save the irksome labor,—a labor of many long days,—he should, as most Spanish historians have done, make 32 Christian years equal to 33 Mohammedan, he would be as much in error as they have been: .

For $32 \times 365 = 11680$ days.
Add the 8 bissextiles 8

11688
And $33 \times 354 =$

11682

So there will be an error of 6 days *minus* in the 33 years. And if the 12 embolical days are added, $11682 + 12 = 11694$, there will be the same error, but in this case of *excess*. What would be the error in some hundreds of years? And how, even if this calculation rested on a sound basis, would the beginning of any given Mohammedan year be found? or how would the corresponding Christian day and month of the eighth Regeb be discovered? It could only be discovered by the wearisome process of computation from the very origin of the era.

But by the preceding Table the time of this or any other event can easily be ascertained. The opening of A. H. 92 is there found to correspond with Oct. 28, 710. Now for the month and day:—

Days.	Days.
Moharram has.....30	October (remaining days).....4
Safr.....29	November.....30
Rabia I.....30	December.....31
Rabia II.....29	January.....31
Jumadi I.....30	February.....28
Jumadi II.....29	March.....31
Add the 8 days of Regeb.....8	April.....30
185	185

Hence the eighth day of Regeb, A. H. 92, falls on April 30, 711.

Example II.—Suppose an event happened on the 11th day of the moon Ramadan, A. H. 325.

A. H. 325 opens Nov. 18, A. D. 936.

Days.	Days.
Moharram.....30	November.....13
Safr.....29	December.....31
Rabia I.....30	January.....31
Rabia II.....29	February.....29 (bisextile.)
Jumadi I.....30	March.....31
Jumadi II.....29	April.....30
Regeb.....30	May.....31
Shafran.....29	June.....30
Ramdan.....11	July.....21
247	247

Hence the 11th day of Ramadan, A. H. 325, corresponds with July 21, A. D. 937.

Lastly. Let us suppose that a particular event occurred the 23d day of the moon Dikada, A. H. 527, which opens Nov. 11, A. D. 1132.

Hence Sept. 24, A. D. 1133, is the period required.

Days.	Days.
Moharram.....30	November.....20
Safr.....29	December.....31
Rabia I.....30	January.....31
Rabia II.....29	February.....28
Jumadi I.....30	March.....31
Jumadi II.....29	April.....30
Regeb.....30	May.....31
Shafran.....29	June.....30
Ramdan.....30	July.....31
Xawal.....29	August.....31
Dikada.....23	September.....24
318	318

Hence Sept. 24, A. D. 1133, is the period required.

To multiply examples is useless, as similar calculations will frequently be found in the foot-notes.

TABLE II.
CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS OF MOHAMMEDAN SPAIN.

CORDOVA.	THE ASTURIAS AND LEON.	NAVARR.	BARCELONA.
<p>A. D.</p> <p>I. Emirs.</p> <p>711. Tarik ben Zeyad.</p> <p>Musa ben Nozeir.</p> <p>714. Abdelasis ben Muza.</p> <p>715. Arub ben Habib.</p> <p>Alhaur ben Abderahman.</p>	<p>A. D.</p> <p>718. Pelayo, believed to be sprung from the royal blood of the Goths.</p>	<p>A. D.</p> <p>The kings reported to reign during this period, entirely fabulous. Navarre governed by counts dependent, probably, on the kingdom of the Asturias. See the History of Navarre, vol. iii. sect. 2. ch. 2.</p>	<p>A. D.</p> <p>During this period Barcelona and all Catalonia dependent on the Mohammedans.</p>
<p>721. Alsama ben Melic.</p> <p>722. Abderahman ben Abdalla.</p> <p>724. Ambisa ben Sohim.</p> <p>726. Hodeira ben Abdalla.</p> <p>Yahia ben Zulema.</p> <p>727. Othman ben Abi Neza.</p> <p>Hodeira ben Alhaus.</p> <p>Alhaitam ben Obeid.</p> <p>728. Mohammed ben Abdalla.</p> <p>729. Abderahman ben Abdalla (second time.)</p> <p>723. Abdelmelic ben Cotan.</p> <p>726. Ocha ben Albegag.</p>	<p>737. Favila, son of Pelayo.</p> <p>739. Alfonso I., son-in-law of Pelayo.</p>		

741. Abdelmelic ben Ostan (second time.)		
742. Baieg ben Bakir.		
743. Thalaba ben Sulema.		
744. Husam ben Dhizar.		
745. Thueba el Amei.		
746. Yussuf el Fehri.		
II. <i>Kings.</i>		
755. Abderahman I. ben Moawia.		
767. Hixem I. ben Abderahman.		
768. Albakem ben Hixem.		
821. Abderahman II. ben Alhakem.		
832. Mohammed I. ben Abderahman.		
757. Fruela I., son of Alfonso.	777, 778. Charlemagne invades Navarre.	777, 778. Charlemagne invades Catalonia.
768. Aurelio, nephew of Alfonso.		
774. Mauregato, bastard of Alfonso.		
788. Bermudo I., nephew of Alfonso.		
791. Alfonso II., son of Fruela.		
842. Ramiro I., son of Bermudo.		
850. Ordoño I., son of Ramiro.		
866. Alfonso III., son of Ordoño.		
		801. Bera.
		830. Bernardo.
		846. Aledran.
		858. Wifredo I.
		872. Salomon.

TABLE II.—*continued.*

CORDOVA.	THE ASTURIAS AND LEON.	NAVARR.	BARCELONA.
A. D.	A. D.	A. D.	A. D.
886. Almondhir, ben Mohammed.		873. Sancho Ifigo, first independent count.	884. Wifredo II., son of Wifredo I.
888. Abdalla, brother of Almondhir.		885. Garcia I. (Iniguez) son of count Sancho, and the first king.	
912. Abderahman III., grandson of Abdalla.	910. Garcia, son of Alfonso III.	905. Sancho I. (Garces Abarca,) son of Garcia I.	912. Miro, son of Wifredo II.
	914. Ordoño II., brother of Garcia.		
	923. Fruela II., son of Alfonso III.		
	925. Alfonso IV., son of Ordoño II.	924. Garcia II. (el Trembloso,) son of Sancho I.	
	930. Ramiro II., brother of the same Alfonso.		928. Suniofredo, son of Miro.
	950. Ordoño III., son of Ramiro II.		

961. Alhakem II., son of Abderahman III.	955. Sancho I., brother of the same Ordoño.		967. Borello, cousin of Senivfred.
976. Hixem II. ben Alhakem II., dethroned to make way for his cousin Mohammed, but restored in 1010; in 1012 finally removed.	967. Ramiro III., son of Sancho I.	970. Sancho II. (el Mayor), son of grandson of Garcia II.	
1012. Suleyman. 1015. Ali ben Hamud. 1017. Abderahman IV. 1018. Alcasim ben Hamud, brother of Ali. 1023. Abderahman V. Mohammed II., cousin of Hixem II. 1026. Hixem III., brother of Abderahman IV.	962. Bermudo II., grandson of Fruela II. 969. Alfonso V., son of Bermudo II.		993. Raymondo I., son of Borello. 1017. Berengario II., son of Raymond.
	1027. Bermudo III., son of Alfonso V.		

TABLE II.—continued.

CORDOVA.	LEON.	CASTILE.	NAVARR.	ARAGON.	BARCELONA.
A. D.	A. D.	A. D.	A. D.	A. D.	A. D.
<i>Reguli of Cordova.</i> 1031. Gehwar ben Mohammed.	1037. Fernando I., king of Castile; king of Leon in right of his wife.	A. D. 1036. Sancho el Mayor, king of Navarre, first king of Castile, in right of his wife. 1035. Fernando I., son of Sancho.	1035. Garcia III., son of Sancho.	1035. Ramiro I.	1035. Raymondo II., son of Berengario II.
1044. Mohammed ben Gehwar.			1054. Sancho III., son of Garcia III.	1063. Sancho I. (afterwards IV. of Navarre), son of Ramiro.	
1060. Mohammed Almoateded.	1065. Alfonso VI., son of Fernando I.	1065. Sancho II., son of Fernando I.			

1069. Mohammed Al-moetadir.

Dynasty of the Ameerides.

1094. Yusef ben Tadrin.

1107. Ali ben Yusef.

1073. Alfonso I., son of Fernando I. (also VI. of Leon.)

1076. Sancho IV. (also I. of Aragon.)

1094. Pedro I., son of Sancho IV. (also king of Aragon.)

1104. Alfonso I., brother of Pedro (also king of Aragon.)

1094. Pedro I., son of Sancho I. (also king of Navarre.)

1104. Alfonso I., brother of Pedro (also king of Navarre.)

1082. Raymondo III., son of Raymondo II.

1109. Urraca and Alfonso VII.* (also sovereign of Castile.)

1126. Alfonso VIII. (the emperor), son of Urraca.

1109. Urraca, daughter of Fernando I., and Alfonso VII.* (also sovereign of Leon.)

1126. Alfonso II. (the emperor), son of Urraca.

* This Alfonso, king of Aragon and Navarre, ought not to be reckoned among the sovereigns of Castile, though he is usually included among them.

TABLE II.—continued.

CORDOVA.	LEON.	CASTILE.	NAVARR.	ARAGON.	BARCELONA.
A. D.	A. D.	A. D.	A. D.	A. D.	A. D.
1144. Tarfūn ben Ali. <i>Dynasty of the Almohades.</i> 1147. Abdelmumen.	1157. Fernando II., son of Alfonso the emperor.	1157. Sancho III., son of Alfonso the emperor. 1158. Alfonso III., son of Sancho III.	1134. Garcia IV. 1150. Sancho V., son of Garcia IV.	1134. Ramiro II., brother of Alfonso. 1137. Petronilla, daughter of Ramiro II.	1131. Alfonso Raymond III. the last count (on his death Barcelona united with Aragon.) PORTUGAL. 1139. Alfonso I., son of count Enrique.

1163. Yusef Abu Yacub, son of Abdelmumen.	1163. Alfonso II., son of Petronilla.	1163. Sancho I., son of Alfonso.
1178. Yacub ben Yusef.	1188. Alfonso IX., son of Fernando II.	
1199. Mohammed, son of Yacub.	1194. Sancho VI., son of Sancho V.	1198. Pedro II., son of Alfonso II.
1213. Abu Yacub.	1214. Enrique I., son of Alfonso III. 1217. Fernando III., son of Alfonso IX. of Leon (afterwards king of Leon.)	1311. Alfonso II., son of Sancho.
1223. Abulmelic. Abdelwahid, son of Yacub. 1225. Almamoon. Abu Ali.	1230. Fernando III., son of Alfonso IX. (also king of Castile.)	1233. Sancho II., son of Alfonso II.

TABLE II.—continued.

GRANADA.	LEON AND CASTILE UNITED.	NAVARR.	ARAGON.	PORTUGAL.
A. D. 1238. Mohammed I. Aben Alhamar, founder of the kingdom.	A. D. 1232. Alfonso X., son of Fernando III.	A. D. 1234. Thibault I., nephew of Sancho VI.	A. D.	A. D. 1248. Alfonso III., brother of Sancho II.
1273. Mohammed II. ben Mohammed.		1233. Thibault II., son of the former. 1270. Henri, in right of his wife, who was daughter of Thi- bault II.	1276. Pedro III., son of Jayme I.	1278. Dionis, son of Al- fonso III.
	1284. Sancho IV., son of Alfonso X.	1274. Jeanne, queen of Philip IV. king of France.	1285. Alfonso III., son of Pedro III. 1291. Jayme II., brother of Alfonso.	

1302. Mohammed III. Abu Abdalla.	1305. Fernando IV., son of Sancho IV.	1305. Louis Hutin (king of France), son of Jeanne.	1325. Alfonso IV., son of Dionis.
1309. Nassir Abul Giur, brother of the pre- ceding.	1312. Alfonso XI., son of Fernando IV.	1316. Philip, brother of Louis (also king of France.) 1322. Charles I., brother of Philip (also king of France.)	1327. Alfonso IV., son of Jayme II.
1312. Ismail ben Ferrag, nephew of Nassir.		1328. Jeanne II., daughter of Louis Hutin, married to Philip count of Evreux.	1336. Pedro IV., son of Alfonso IV.
1325. Mohammed IV. ben Ismail.		1349. Charles II., son of Jeanne.	
1333. Yusef Abul Hagiag, brother of Moham- med IV.	1350. Pedro the Cruel, son of Alfonso XI.		

TABLE II.—continued.

GRANADA.	LEON AND CASTILE UNITED.	NAVARR.	ARAGON.	PORTUGAL.
A. D. 1354. Mohammed V. ben Yusef.	A. D.	A. D.	A. D.	A. D.
1359. Ismail II., brother of Mohammed.				1357. Pedro I., son of Alfonso IV.
1360. Abu Said, brother-in-law of Ismail II.				1367. Fernando I., son of Pedro I.
	1369. Enrique II., bastard son of Alfonso XI. 1379. Juan I., son of Enrique II.	1367. Charles III., son of Charles II.	1367. Juan I., son of Pedro IV.	1368. Joam I.
1391. Yusef II., Abu Abdalla, son of Mohammed V.	1390. Enrique III., son of Juan.			
1396. Mohammed VI., son of Yusef II.	1406. Juan II., son of Enrique III.		1395. Martin, brother of Juan I.	

[illegible]

TABLE II.—continued.

GRANADA.	LEON AND CASTILE UNITED.	NAVARR.	ARAGON.	PORTUGAL.
A. D. 1463. Muley Ali Abul Hassan, son of Mohammed X.	A. D. 1474. Isabel, daughter of Juan II., and her husband, Fernando V. (the II. of Aragon.)	A. D. 1479. François Phœbus de Foix, in right of his grandmother, Leonora de Foix, daughter of Juan.	A. D. 1479. Fernando II. (the V. of Castile), son of Juan II.	A. D.
1483. Abu Abdalla, son of Abul Hassan.		1483. Catherine de Foix, sister of Phœbus, and her husband Jean d'Albret.		1481. Joam II., son of Alfonso V.
1484. Abdalla el Zagal brother of Abul Hassan; both princes survived the fall of Granada.	1504. Juanna, daughter of Fernando and Isabel, and Philip I. of Austria.	United with Castile in 1512.	United with Castile in 1516.	1485. Manoel, cousin of Joam II.

THE HISTORY OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

BOOK III—CONTINUED.

SPAIN DURING THE DOMINATION OF THE ARABS.

SECTION I.

MOHAMMEDAN SPAIN, CONTINUED.

CHAP. I.

DOMINATION OF THE AFRICANS, ETC. 1031—1238.

1. *Independent Kingdoms.*

THE decline and dissolution of the Mohammedan monarchy, or western caliphate, afforded the ambitious local governors throughout the Peninsula the opportunity for which they had long sighed,—that of openly asserting their independence of Cordova, and of assuming the title of kings. The wali of Seville, Mohammed ben Ismail ben Abid, whose victory over Yahia has been already recorded,* appears to have been the first to assume the powers of royalty; and he showed that he knew how to use them with as much impunity as sovereigns of more sounding pretensions: without condescending to inquire whether the throne of Cordova was filled or vacant, he declared war against the self-elected king of Carmona, Mohammed ben Abdalla, on whose cities, Carmona and Ecija, he had cast a covetous eye. The brother of Yahia, Edris ben Ali, the son of Hamud, governed Malaga with equal independence. Algeiras had also its sovereigns. Elvira and Granada obeyed Habus ben Maksan: Valencia had for its king Abdelasis Abul Hassan, Almeria had Zohair, and Denia had Mugehid; but these two petty states were soon absorbed in the rising sphere of Valencia. Huesca and Saragossa were also subject to rulers, who though slow to assume the title of kings were not the less independent, since their sway extended over most of Aragon. The sovereign of Badajos, Abdalla Muslema ben

A. H.
412
to
423.

* See vol. I. p. 366.

Alaftas, was the acknowledged head of all the confederated governors of Algarve and Lusitania; and Toledo was subject to the powerful Ismail ben Dyluun, who, like the king of Seville, secretly aspired to the government of all Mohammedan Spain. These numerous reguli were unanimous in one object,—that of renouncing all allegiance to the former seat of empire.

A. H. 423. But Cordova, however weakened, was not willing to she suddenly to lose her hold on her ancient subjects: she resolved to elect a sovereign who should endeavor to subdue these audacious rebels, and restore her ancient splendor. The disasters which had accompanied the last reigns of the Omeyan princes had strongly indisposed the people to the claims of that illustrious house. No one thought of inquiring whether any member of that house remained; it was unfortunate, and superstition regarded it as doomed by fate to everlasting exclusion. After a deliberation proportioned to the magnitude of the interests involved, the inhabitants threw their eyes on Gehwar ben Muhammed, a chief of great prudence, and of considerable enterprise, who was persuaded to undertake the arduous duties of government. But Gehwar had seen too much of popular inconstancy to incur the same fatal responsibility as his immediate predecessors. To diminish the odium invariably attached to failure, he surrounded himself by a council which comprised some of the most distinguished citizens, and without the advice of which he undertook no one thing, not even the nomination to public offices. Of that council he was but the president, possessing but one vote like the remaining members; so that Cordova presented the appearance rather of a republic than of a monarchy.* Though he was reluctantly persuaded to take up his abode in the palace of the caliphs, he carefully freed himself from the encumbrances of royal pomp by reducing both his table and attendants to the scale of a private citizen. His vigor in the internal administration, the long continued abuses of which he purged with no sparing hand, corresponded with so auspicious a beginning. All useless offices he abolished; such as were imperfectly administered he restored to their former efficiency, and he created new ones to control and expedite the whole business of government. No less zealously did he provide for the comfort of the people, by establishing public magazines and markets, where the necessaries of life were abundantly and cheaply furnished to all purchasers. By these and other measures he introduced a de-

* *Honores non petiit; imo regiâ dignitate sibi oblatâ, sic se gessit ut rempublicam tanquam regis vicarius administrare constituit* (Supplementum Alhomaidi), apud Casiri, Bibliotheca Arabico Hispana, tom. ii. p. 208.

gree of tranquillity and of commercial activity unknown since the death of the great Almansor. But the same success did not attend him in his efforts to restore the supremacy of Cordova. Some of the walis whom he summoned to take the usual oath of fidelity excused themselves on various grounds; others plainly replied that he must not expect to rule over any other city than the one he inhabited: the wali of Toledo advised him to be grateful to the moderation of men who allowed him to retain Cordova. These insults were bitterly felt by him, but he had not the means of revenge, and he could do no more than patiently wait the course of events in the faint hope of profiting by it. He waited in vain. Whatever might be the internal dissensions of the petty kings, the success of some, the failure of others, none thought of recognizing his superiority.*

To recount the perpetually recurring struggles of these reguli for the increase of their states, their alliances, their transient successes or hopeless failures, or even their existence, would far exceed the limits of a compendium, and would afford neither interest nor instruction to the reader. Such events only can be noticed as are either signal in themselves, or exercised more than a passing influence on the condition of the Mohammedan portion of the Peninsula.

After triumphing over some neighboring kings, who dreaded his increasing power, the sovereign of Seville prepared to invade the possessions of Gehwar; but death surprised him before those preparations were completed. His son, Mohammed Almoateded, who succeeded him, was as ambitious as himself, but more luxurious. The young king, dissatisfied with the scanty number of seventy women which had hitherto satisfied him, filled his harem with eight hundred of the choicest beauties. The faithful were scandalized at a prodigality which rivalled that of the greatest sovereigns of the East, and still more when they saw that while immense sums were expended on palaces, only one humble mosque arose in the twenty-five towns which owned his jurisdiction. But this ostentatious luxury did not divert him from treading in the steps of his able father. He seized on Huelva, Niebla, and Gibraltar, and aimed at the reduction of Carmona, which his father had been unable to effect. Though the fate of the last-named place was suspended for some years by the

A. H.
433
to
455.

* Abu Baker, *Vestis Serica*, p. 39. Abu Abdalla, *Vestis Acu Picta*, p. 208. Albomaid, *Supplementum*, p. 208. Ben Alabar, *Chronologia*, p. 208. (apud Casiri, *Bibliotheca Arabico Hispana*, tom. ii.) Ximenes *Historia Arabum*, cap. 47. Condé, as spoiled by Mariés, *Histoire de la Domination des Arabes*, &c. ii. 129—157. In these chapters Christian authorities have little to do with affairs purely Mohammedan. It is often necessary, however, to correct the statements of the Arabian writers by them.

energetic resistance of its ruler, in A. H. 444 it capitulated. All southern Andalusia was now in the power of Almoateded, yet his ambition was far from satisfied. For some time he remained in alliance with Mohammed, the son and successor of Gehwar (A. H. 435), in the throne of Cordova; but he had resolved to gain possession of that ancient capital,—whether by force or stratagem imported him little. Though he had dispatched five hundred horse to the aid of Mohammed in the wars which that prince had to sustain against the king of Toledo, and though Abdelmelic, the son of Mohammed, had been his bosom friend from infancy, he only waited for an opportunity of seizing his destined prey. That opportunity arrived in A. H. 452. The troops of Mohammed had just been defeated by Aben Dylun, who followed up the success by investing Cordova. The king was too much weakened by sickness to meet the impending danger, and Abdelmelic was too feeble to avert it by his own unassisted arm. The latter prince hastened to Seville, and implored the immediate aid of his friend. By Almoateded he was received with much apparent affection, and was assured of speedy help. He returned joyful to the palace of Azhara (Cordova was too closely invested to be safely entered), where he awaited the promised arrival of his friend. That friend did arrive at the head of a considerable army, and with the aid of the citizens totally routed the forces of Dylun. But while Abdelmelic was pursuing the fugitives, the unprincipled ally moved his army on the city, took it, and made the unsuspecting Mohammed prisoner. The shock was too great for the shattered nerves of the son of Gehwar, who soon expired of a broken heart. The fate of Abdelmelic was no less melancholy. On returning to the capital which his valor had been instrumental in saving, he was refused admission, and was at the same instant surrounded and made a prisoner by the troops of his perfidious ally. Being consigned to a dungeon in one of the city towers, his wounds, and still more the indignation which he felt at hearing Almoateded loudly hailed as sovereign by the despicable populace,—or perhaps a violent death,—soon reunited him with his unfortunate father.* The usurper had little difficulty in procuring the huzzas of the mob. His liberality, which bordered on profusion, his magnificence, and above all, the splendor of his power, were well fitted to dazzle that unreflecting, and sometimes mischievous, portion of society.†

* "Atque Abdelmeleko interfecto," says the learned interpreter (Casiri) of Abu Abdalla. We are unwilling to believe that Almoateded, however unprincipled, would proceed to that extremity; yet another account says that both father and son were put to death by the king of Seville. It is also said that the expiring Abdelmelic prayed for vengeance on the race of his persecutor, and that his prayer was heard. We shall soon witness the fate of Almoateded's descendants.

† The same authorities as before.

The king of Toledo was eager to erase the shame of A. H. his defeat under the walls of Cordova; but he dreaded 456 the power of Almoateded, and endeavored to strengthen to himself by alliances. His son-in-law, the king of Valen- 472 cia, refused to aid him—doubtless through fear of the Sevillian king. In a transport of fury he departed for Valencia at the head of his cavalry, surprised the place, deposed and exiled his son-in-law, and caused himself to be proclaimed (A. H. 457), before the inhabitants could take any measures for the defence of their ruler. But though his resources were thus unexpectedly increased, he was unable to contend with the formidable Almoateded, who defeated him as often as he advanced to the field. On the death, however, of that prince, whom grief for the loss of a beloved daughter brought to the tomb (461), he resumed his hostile policy. But though he triumphed over some allies of Mohammed, the son and successor of Almoateded, though he vanquished the general of that prince, though during the absence of Mohammed he surprised both Cordova and Seville, his success was transient: he was besieged in the latter city by his active enemy, and died there at the very moment Mohammed was advancing to take it by storm. The troops of the deceased king precipitately left the place; Cordova was recovered with little difficulty; Murcia, the ally of Toledo, was soon occupied by the conquering Mohammed; Baeza, and other neighboring cities, shared the same fate: in short, after so many years of continued warfare, the king of Seville and Cordova became, not merely the most powerful, but almost the only independent sovereign of Mohammedan Spain.

Yahia Alkadia, the son and successor of Aben Dyl- 472 nun in the throne of Toledo, inherited neither the cour- age nor the abilities of that prince. Sunk in the lowest 478 sensuality, he regarded with indifference the growing success of Mohammed. He became at length so contemptible, that his very subjects rose and expelled him. He applied for aid to the ally of his father, Alfonso VI. king of Leon; but that prince, though under the greatest obligations to the memory of the father,* was persuaded by the king of Seville to adopt a hostile policy towards the son. It seems, indeed, as if Mohammed and Alfonso, in the treaty which they concluded at the instance of the former, had tacitly agreed not to interrupt each other in the execution of the designs each had long formed. Though Yahia was restored to his throne by the king of Badajoz, his destiny, as a Mohammedan would term it, was not to be avoided. His states were laid waste, and his capital invested,

* See the reign of that prince in the next section.

by the Christian king. His situation was now critical: in vain did the king of Badajoz advance to his assistance. The victorious Alfonso triumphed over all opposition, and prosecuted the siege with a vigor which might have shown the misbelievers how formidable an enemy awaited them all, and how necessary were their combined efforts to resist him. But Mohammed, the only enemy whom the Christian hero had to dread, was no less occupied in deriving *his* share of the advantages secured by the treaty,—in reducing the strong towns of Murcia and Granada. Some zealous Mussulmans, indeed, raised their warning voice, and called on the princes of their faith from Saragossa to Granada to arm in its defence; but their voices were disregarded amidst the storm of conflicting interests and passions. After a siege of three years, Toledo was reduced to the last extremity, and was compelled to capitulate. On the twenty-fifth of May, A. D. 1085, Alfonso triumphantly entered this ancient capital of the Goths (Yahia retired to Valencia), which had remained in the power of the misbelievers about three hundred and seventy-four years.*

The fall of Toledo, however it might have been foreseen by the Mohammedans, filled them with equal dismay and indignation. As Mohammed was too formidable to be openly assailed, they turned their vociferations of anger against his hagib, whom they accused of betraying the faith of Islam. Alarmed at the universal outcry, Mohammed was not sorry that he could devolve the heavy load of responsibility on the shoulders of his minister. The latter fled; but though he procured a temporary asylum from several princes, he was at length seized by the emissaries of his offended master; was brought, first to Cordova, next to Seville; confined within the walls of a dungeon; and soon beheaded by the royal hand of Mohammed. Thus was a servant of the king sacrificed for no other reason than that he had served that king too well.

The conquest of Toledo was far from satisfying the ambition of Alfonso: he rapidly seized on the fortresses of Madrid,

* Abu Abdalla, and Alhomaïd (apud Casiri, *ii.* 210—214.). Ximenes *Historia Arabum*, cap. 47. necnon *Rerum in Hispaniâ Gestarum*, lib. vi. cap. 23. (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. ii.). *Chronicon Conimbricense*, p. 330. (apud Florez, *España, Sagrada*, tom. xxiii. *Chronicon de Cardeña*, p. 372. (in eodem tomo.) *Anales Toledanos*, i. 385. (in eodem tomo.) *Anales Toledanos*, ii. 410. (in eodem tomo.) *Chronicon Lusitanum*, p. 405. (apud eundem, tom. xiv.) *Pelagius Ovetensis*, p. 473. (in eodem tomo.) *Chronicon Burgenae*, p. 309. (apud eundem, xxiii.) *Chronicon Cerratenae* (apud eundem ii. 212.) Condé, as spoiled by Marlés, *Histoire de la Domination des Arabes*, &c. ii. 157—210. We lament to part here with Masdeu, whose unfinished work ends with the re-conquest of Toledo, A. D. 1085. To his elaborate researches we have been under the greatest obligation, but cannot too much censure the plan of his great work, which is destitute alike of taste and method, which is meager in facts and arid in style, and which is strangely confused from the Arabian invasion to this period. It is a work which the critic and the scholar will be glad to consult, but which will never be read.

Maqueda, Guadalajara, and established his dominion on both banks of the Tagus. Mohammed now began seriously to repent his treaty with the Christian, and to tremble even for his own possessions. He vainly endeavored to divert his ally from the projects of aggrandizement which that ally had evidently formed. The kings of Badajoz and Saragossa became tributaries to the latter; nay, if any reliance is to be placed on either Christian or Arabic historians,* the king of Seville himself was subjected to the same humiliation. However this may have been, Mohammed saw that unless he leagued himself with those whose subjugation had hitherto been his constant object,—the princes of his faith,—his and their destruction was inevitable. The magnitude of the danger compelled him to solicit their alliance. As the king of Saragossa was too much in fear of the Christians to enter into any league against them, and as the one of Valencia (Yahia) reigned only at the pleasure of Alfonso, the sovereigns of Badajoz, Almeria, and Granada were the only powers on whose co-operation he could calculate (he had annihilated the authority of several petty kings). He invited those princes to send their representatives to Seville, to consult as to the measures necessary to protect their threatened independence. The invitation was readily accepted. On the day appointed, Mohammed, with his son Al Raxid, and a considerable number of his wasirs and cadis, were present at the deliberations. The danger was so imminent,—the force of the Christians was so augmented, and that of the Moslems so weakened,—that such resistance as Mohammedan Spain alone could offer seemed hopeless. With this conviction in their hearts, two of the most influential cadis proposed an appeal to the celebrated African conqueror, Yusef ben Taksin, whose arm alone seemed able to preserve the faith of Islam in the Peninsula. The proposal was received with general applause by all present: they did not make the very obvious reflection, that when a nation admits into its bosom an ally more powerful than itself, it admits at the same time a conqueror. The wali of Malaga alone, Abdalla ben Zagut, had courage to oppose the dangerous embassy under consideration. "You

* Condé gives the translation of two letters,—one from Alfonso to Mohammed, distinguished for a tone of superiority and even of arrogance, which could arise only from the confidence felt by the writer in his own strength; the other from Mohammed to Alfonso, containing a defiance. The latter begins:—

"To the proud enemy of Allah, Alfonso ben Sancho, who calls himself lord of both nations and both laws. May God confound his arrogance, and prosper those who walk in the right way!"

One passage of the same letter says, "Fatigued with war, we were willing to offer thee an annual tribute; but this does not satisfy thee: thou wishest us to deliver into thine hands our towns and fortresses; but are we thy subjects, that thou makest such demands, or hast thou ever subdued us? Thine injustice has roused us from our lethargy," &c.

mean to call in the aid of the Almoravides! Are you ignorant that these fierce inhabitants of the deserts resemble their own native tigers? Suffer them not, I beseech you, to enter the fertile plains of Andalusia and Granada! Doubtless they would break the iron sceptre which Alfonso intends for us; but you would still be doomed to wear the chains of slavery. Do you not know that Yusef has taken all the cities of Almagreb,—that he has subdued the powerful tribes of the east and west,—that he has everywhere substituted despotism for liberty and independence?" The aged Zagut spoke in vain: he was even accused of being a secret partisan of the Christian; and the embassy was decreed. But Zagut was not the only one who foresaw the catastrophe to which that embassy must inevitably lead: Al Raxid shared the same prophetic feeling. In reply to his father, who, after the separation of the assembly, expatiated on the absolute necessity of soliciting the alliance of Aben Taxfin, as the only measure capable of saving the rest of Mohammedan Spain from the yoke of Alfonso, he said,—“This Aben Taxfin, who has subdued all that he pleased, will serve us as he has already served the people of Almagreb and Mauritania,—he will expel us from our country!”—“Any thing,” rejoined the father, “rather than Andalusia should become the prey of the Christians! Dost thou wish the Mussulmans to curse me? I would rather become an humble shepherd, a driver of Yusef’s camels, than reign dependent on these Christian dogs! But my trust is in Allah.”—“May Allah protect both thee and thy people!” replied Al Raxid mournfully, who saw that the die of fate was cast.*

The course of this history must be interrupted for a moment, while the origin and exploits of this formidable African are recorded.

Beyond the chain of Mount Atlas, in the deserts of ancient Getulia, dwelt two tribes of Arabian descent,—both, probably, of the greater one of Zanhaga, so illustrious in Arabian history. At what time they had been expelled, or had voluntarily exiled themselves from their native Yemen, they knew not; but tradition taught them that they had been located in the African deserts from ages immemorial. Their life was passed under the tent; their only possessions were their camels and their freedom. Yahia ben Ibrahim, belonging to one of these tribes,—that of Gudala,—made the pilgrimage of Mecca. On his return through the province of Cairwan he became acquainted with Abu Amram, a famous alfaqui, originally of Fez. Being questioned by his new friend as to the religion and manners of his countrymen, he replied that they were sunk in ig-

* Authorities, the chronicles preserved in Florez, the fragments of Casiri, Rodericus Toletanus, Lucas Tudensis, and Condé as spoiled by Mariés.

norance, both from their isolated situation in the desert and from their want of teachers: he added, however, that they were strangers to cruelty, and that they would be willing enough to receive instruction from any quarter. He even entreated the alfaqui to allow some one of his disciples to accompany him into his native country; but none of those disciples were willing to undertake so long and perilous a journey, and it was not without considerable difficulty that Abdalla ben Yassim, the disciple of another alfaqui, was persuaded to accompany the patriotic Yahia. Abdalla was one of those ruling minds which, fortunately for the peace of society, nature so seldom produces. Seeing his enthusiastic reception by the tribe of Gudala, and the influence he was sure of maintaining over it, he formed the design of founding a sovereignty in the heart of these vast regions. Under the pretext that to diffuse a holy religion and useful knowledge was among the most imperative of duties, he prevailed on his obedient disciples to make war on the kindred tribe of Lamtuna. That tribe submitted, acknowledging his spiritual authority, and zealously assisted him in his great purpose of gaining proselytes by the sword. His ambition naturally increased with his success: in a short time he had reduced, in a similar manner, the isolated tribes around him. To his valiant followers of Lamtuna he now gave the name of *Murabitins*, or *Almoravides*, which signifies men consecrated to the service of God.* The whole country of Darah was gradually subdued by this new apostle, and his authority was acknowledged over a region extensive enough to form a respectable kingdom. But though he exercised all the rights of sovereignty, he prudently abstained from assuming the title: he left to the emir of Lamtuna the ostensible exercise of temporal power; and when, in A. H. 450 (A. D. 1058), that emir fell in battle, he nominated Abu Bekir ben Omar to the vacant dignity. His own death, which was that of a warrior, left Abu Bekir in possession of an undivided sovereignty. The power, and consequently the reputation of the emir, spread far and wide; and numbers flocked from distant provinces to share in the advantages of religion and plunder. His native plains were now too narrow for the ambition of Abu Bekir, who crossed the chain of Mount Atlas, and fixed his residence in the city of Agmat, between those mountains and the sea. But even this

* The interpretation of Casiri is somewhat different: "*Almorabide, quod nomen Latine sonat Confederati,*" &c. Nota in Vest. Acu Pict. Abu Abdalla, ii. 219.

"Marbouth Morabeth," says D'Herbelot (Bibliothèque Orientale), "qui est le singulier de Morabethah, signifie en Arabe, une personne liée plus étroitement aux exercices de sa religion, et que nous appelons ordinairement un religieux."

place was soon too confined for his increased subjects, and he looked round for a site on which he might lay the foundations of a great city, the destined metropolis of a great empire. One was at length found; and the city of Marocco began to rear its head from the valley of Eylana. Before, however, his great work was half completed, he received intelligence that the tribe of Gudala had declared a deadly war against that of Lamtuna; and that the ruin of one at least of the hostile people was to be apprehended. As he belonged to the latter, he naturally trembled for the fate of his kindred; and at the head of his cavalry he departed for his native deserts, leaving the superintendence of the buildings and the command of the army, during his absence, to his cousin, Yussef ben Taxfin.

The person and character of Yussef are drawn in the most favorable colors by the Arabian writers. We are told that his stature was tall and noble, his countenance prepossessing, his eye dark and piercing, his beard long, his tone of voice harmonious, his whole frame, which no sickness ever assailed, strong, robust, and familiar with fatigue; that his mind corresponded with his outward appearance, his generosity, his care of the poor, his sobriety, his justice, his religious zeal, yet freedom from intolerance, rendering him the admiration of foreigners, and the love of his own people. But whatever were his other virtues, it will be seen that gratitude, honor, and good faith, were not among the number. Scarcely had his kinsman left the city, than, in pursuance of the design he had formed of usurping the supreme authority, he began to win the affection of the troops, partly by his gifts, and partly by that winning affability of manner which he could easily assume. How well he succeeded will soon appear. Nor was his success in war less agreeable to so fierce and martial a people as the Almora-vides. The Berbers who inhabited the defiles of Mount Atlas, and who, animated by the spirit of independence so characteristic of mountaineers, endeavored to vindicate their natural liberty, were quickly subdued by him. But his policy was still superior. He had long loved, or at least, long aspired to the hope of marrying, the beautiful Zainab, sister of Abu Bekir; but the fear of a repulse from the proud chief of his family had caused him to smother his inclination. He now disdained to supplicate for that chief's consent: he married the lady, and from that moment proceeded boldly in his projects of ambition. Having put the finishing hand to his magnificent city of Marocco, he transferred thither the seat of his empire; and by the encouragement he afforded to individuals of all nations who chose to settle there, he soon filled it with a prosperous and numerous population. The augmentation of his army was his next great object; and so

A. H.

465.

A. D.

1071.

well did he succeed in it that on his departure, in a hostile expedition against Fez, he found his troops exceeded one hundred thousand. With so formidable a force, A. H. 466. he had little difficulty in rapidly extending his conquests.

Yussef had just completed the subjugation of Fez when Abu Bekir returned from the desert, and encamped in the vicinity of Agmat. He was soon made acquainted—probably common report had acquainted him long before—with the usurpation of his kinsman. With a force so far inferior to his rival's, and still more with the conviction that the hearts of the people were weaned from him, he might well hesitate as to the course he should adopt. His greatest mortification was to hear his own horsemen, whom curiosity drew to Marocco, loud in the praises of Yussef, whose liberality to the army was the theme of universal admiration, and whose service for that reason many avowed their intention of embracing. He now feared that his power was at an end, yet he resolved to have an interview with his cousin. The two chiefs met about half-way between Marocco and Agmat,* and after a formal salutation took their seats on the same carpet. The appearance of Yussef's formidable guard, the alacrity with which he was obeyed, and the grandeur which surrounded him, convinced Abu Bekir that the throne of the usurper was too firmly established to be shaken. The poor emir, so far from demanding the restitution of his rights, durst not even utter one word of complaint: on the contrary, he pretended that he had long renounced empire, and that his only wish was to pass the remainder of his days in the retirement of the desert. With equal hypocrisy Yussef humbly thanked him for his abdication: the sheiks and walis were summoned to witness the renewed declaration of the emir, after which the two princes separated. The following day, however, Abu Bekir received a magnificent present from Yussef,† who, indeed, continued to send him one every year to the period of his death.‡

* The distance is about ten or twelve leagues.

† This present is made to consist of 25,000 crowns of gold, 70 horses of the best breed, all splendidly accoutred, 150 mules, 100 magnificent turbans, with as many costly habits, 400 common turbans, 200 white mantles, 1000 pieces of rich stuffs, 200 pieces of fine linen, 150 black slaves, 20 beautiful young maidens, with a considerable quantity of perfumes, corn, and cattle. Such a gift was worthy of royalty. In a similar situation, a modern English sovereign would probably have sent—one hundred pounds.

‡ D'Herbelot, *Dictionnaire Oriental*, under the respective names, Abu Abdalla, *Begum Almorabitum Series* (apud Casiri Biblioth., ii. 216.). Abu Bekir, *Vestis Serica* (apud eundem, ii. 41.). Ximenes Rodericus, *Historia Arabum*, cap. 48, &c. Condé, as spoiled by Marlés, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. ii. 227—238. D'Herbelot varies in several instances from the authorities of both librarians of the Escorial.

Yussef, who, though he had refused to receive the A. H. title of almumenin, which he considered as properly belonging to the caliph of the East, had just exchanged his humble one of emir for those of almuzlemin, or prince of the believers, and of nazaradin, or defender of the faith, when the letters of Mohammed reached him. A similar application from Omar, king of Badajoz, he had disregarded, not because he was indifferent to the glory of serving his religion, still less to the advantage of extending his conquests, but because he had not then sufficiently consolidated his power. Now, however, he was in peaceful possession of an extended empire, and he assembled his chiefs to hear their sentiments on an expedition which he had resolved to undertake. All immediately exclaimed that war should be undertaken in defence of the tottering throne of Islam. Before, however, he returned a final answer to the king of Seville, he insisted that the fortress of Algeziras should be placed in his hands, on the pretence that if fortune were unpropitious, he should have some place to which he might retreat. That Mohammed should have been so blind as not to perceive the designs involved in the insidious proposal is almost enough to make one agree with the Arabic historians, that destiny had decreed he should fall by his own measures. The place was not only surrendered to the artful Moor, but Mohammed himself went to Marocco to hasten the departure of Yussef. He was assured of speedy succor, and induced to return. He was soon followed by the ambitious African, at the head of a mighty armament.

479. Alfonso was besieging Saragossa, which he had every expectation of reducing, when intelligence reached him of Yussef's disembarkation. He resolved to meet the approaching storm. At the head of all the forces he could muster he advanced towards Andalusia, and encountered Yussef on the plains of Zalaca, between Badajos and Merida. As the latter was a strict observer of the outward forms of his religion, he summoned the Christian king by letter to embrace the faith of the prophet, or consent to pay an annual tribute, or prepare for immediate battle. "I am told," added the writer, "that thou wishest for vessels to carry the war into my kingdom; I spare thee the trouble of the voyage. Allah brings thee into my presence that I may punish thy presumption and pride!" The indignant Christian trampled the letter under foot, and at the same time said to the messenger, "Tell thy master what thou hast seen! Tell him also not to hide himself during the action: let him meet me face to face!" The two armies engaged the thirteenth day of the moon Regeb, A. H.

479.* The onset of Alfonso at the head of the Christian cavalry was so fierce, that the ranks of the Almoravides were thrown into confusion; not less successful was Sancho, king of Navarre, against the Andalusians, who retreated towards Badajoz. But the troops of Seville kept the field, and fought with desperate valor: they would, however, have given way, had not Yusef at this critical moment advanced with his reserve and his own guard, consisting of his bravest troops, and assailed the Christians in the rear and flanks. This unexpected movement decided the fortune of the day. Alfonso was severely wounded and compelled to retreat, but not until night-fall, nor until he had displayed a valor worthy of the greatest heroes. Though his own loss was severe, amounting according to the Arabians to 24,000 men, that of the enemy could scarcely be inferior, when we consider that this victory had no result: Yusef was evidently too much weakened to profit by it.†

Not long after the battle, Yusef being called to Africa by the death of a son, the command of the Almoravides devolved on Syr ben Abi Bekir, the ablest of his generals. That general advanced northwards, and seized some insignificant fortresses; but the advantage was but temporary, and was more than counterbalanced by the disasters of the following year. The king of Saragossa, Abu Giafar, had hoped that the defeat of Zalaca would prevent the Christians from attacking him; but that of his allies, the Mohammedan princes, in the neighborhood, and the taking of Huesca‡ by the king of Navarre, convinced him how fallacious

A. H.
480
to
484

* A. H. 479. opens April 17th, 1086.

Muharram	30	April	14
Safir	29	May	31
Rabia I.	30	June	30
Rabia II.	29	July	31
Jumadi I.	30	August	31
Jumadi II.	29	September	30
Regeb	13	October	23

190

190

Hence October 23, 1086.

† Abu Abdalla, Vestis Acu Picta, et Abu Bekir, Vestis Serica (apud Casiri, ubi suprâ). Rodericus Toletanus, *Rerum in Hispania Gestarum*, lib. vi. cap. 31, &c. (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. ii.). *Chronicon Lusitanum*, p. 405. (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, tom. xiv.). This authority thus relates the loss of the battle:—"Sed Diabolo adversante, timor magnus invasit plurimos nostrorum, et fugerunt ex eis multa millia, nullo eos persequente." *Annales Complutenses*, p. 313. (apud eundem, tom. xxiii.) *Chronicon Conimbricense* (in eodem tomo, p. 330.). *Chronicon Cerratense* (apud eundem, ii. 212.). D'Herbelot, *Bibliothèque Orientale* (sub variis nominibus). Condé, as spoiled by Martès, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. tom. ii.

‡ The events and dates of this period are strangely confounded by Mariana and Ferreras, who chiefly depend on Rodrigo of Toledo. Spanish history can never be too much indebted to Casiri and Condé. To expose the anachronisms and the mistakes of the native writers prior to the appearance of the *Bibliotheca Arabico-Hispana Escorialensis* would require an ample volume.

was his fancied security. Seeing that no advantage whatever had accrued from his former expedition, Yusef now proclaimed the Alhiged, or holy war, and invited all the Andalusian princes to join him. In the moon Rabia I., A. H. 481, he again disembarked at Algeziras, and joined the confederates. But this present demonstration of force proved as useless as the preceding: it ended in nothing; owing partly to the dissensions of Mohammedans, and partly to the activity of the Christians, who not only rendered abortive the measures of the enemy, but gained some signal advantages over them. Yusef was forced to retreat on Almeida. Whether through the distrust of the Mohammedan princes, who appear to have penetrated his intention of subjecting them to his empire, or through his apprehension of Alfonso, he again returned to Africa, to procure new and more considerable levies. In A. H. 484, he landed a third time at Algeziras, not so much with the view of humbling the Christian king as of executing the perfidious design he had so long formed. For form's sake, indeed, he invested Toledo, but he could have entertained no expectation of reducing it; and when he perceived that the Andalusian princes refused to join him, he eagerly left that city, and proceeded to secure far dearer and easier interests: he openly threw off the mask, and commenced his career of spoliation.

The king of Granada, Abdalla ben Balkin, was the first victim to African perfidy. In the conviction that he must be overwhelmed if resistance were offered, he left his city to welcome Yusef. His submission was vain: he was instantly loaded with chains, and with his family sent to Agmat. Timur ben Balkin, brother of Abdalla, was, in the same violent manner, despoiled of Malaga. Mohammed now perceived the grievous error which he had committed, and the prudent foresight of his son Al Raxid. "Did not I tell thee," said the latter, mournfully, "what the consequences would be; that we should be driven from our palace and country?"—"Thou wert indeed a true prophet," replied the self-accused father; "but what power could avert the decrees of fate?" It seemed as if fate had indeed resolved that this well-meaning but misguided prince should fall by his own obstinacy; for though his son advised him to seek the alliance of Alfonso, he refused to do so until that alliance could no longer avail him. He himself seemed to think that the knell of his departing greatness was about to sound; and the most melancholy images were present to his fancy even in sleep. "One night," says an Arabic historian, "he heard in a dream his ruin predicted by one of his sons: he awoke, and the same verses were repeated:—

“Once, Fortune carried thee in her car of triumph, and thy name was by renown spread to the ends of the earth. Now, the same renown conveys only thy sighs. Days and nights pass away, and like them the enjoyments of the world: thy greatness has vanished like a dream!”

But if Mohammed was superstitious,—if he felt that fate had doomed him, and that resistance would be useless,—he resolved not to fall ignobly. His defence was indeed heroic; but it was vain, even though Alfonso sent him an aid of 20,000 men: his cities fell one by one; Seville was constrained to capitulate: he and his family were thrown into prison until a ship was prepared to convey them into Africa, whither their perfidious ally had retired some weeks before. His conduct in this melancholy reverse of fortune is represented as truly great. Not a sigh escaped him, except for the innocent companions of his misfortune, especially for his son, Al Raxid, whose virtues and talents deserved a better destiny. Surrounded by the best beloved of his wives, by his daughters, and his four surviving sons, he endeavored to console them as they wept on seeing his royal hands oppressed with fetters, and still more when the ship conveyed all from the shores of Spain. “My children and friends,” said the suffering monarch, “let us learn to support our lot with resignation! In this state of being our enjoyments are but lent us, to be resumed when Heaven sees fit. Joy and sorrow, pleasure and pain, closely follow each other; but the noble heart is above the inconstancy of fortune!” The royal party disembarked at Ceuta, and were conveyed to Agmat, to be confined in a fortress. We are told, that on their journey a compassionate poet presented the fallen king with a copy of verses deploring his misfortunes, and that he rewarded the poet with thirty-six pieces of gold,—the only money he had left, from his once exhaustless riches. He had little apprehension of what was to follow—that Youssef would leave him without support; that his future life was to be passed in penury; nay, that his daughters would be compelled to earn his subsistence and their own by the labor of their hands. Yet even in that indigent condition, says Aben Lebuna, and through the sadness which covered their countenances, there was something about them which revealed their high origin. The unfortunate monarch outlived the loss of his crown and liberty about four years.*

* Abu Bakir, Vestis Serica, necnon Abu Abdalla, Vestis Acu Picta, seu Regum Almorabitarum Series (apud Casiri, Biblioth. Arab. Hisp. ii. 42. et 217.). Bibliotheca (apud eundem, ii. 219.). Pelagius Ovetensis Episcopus, Breve Compendium (apud Sandoval, Historias de los Cinco Obispos, p. 76., et apud Florez, España Sagrada, tom. xiv.). Condé, as spoiled by Mariès, Histoire de la Domination, ii. 238—275. See also D’Herbelot, Bibliothèque Orientale under the head of Morabethah, Jousouf, &c. Abu Bakir is so ill

After the fall of Mohammed, the general of Yusef had little difficulty in subduing the princes of Andalusia.

485. Valencia next received the African yoke. The king of Saragossa was more fortunate. He sent ambassadors to Yusef, bearing rich presents, and proposing an alliance with a common league against the Christians. "My dominions," said Abu Giafar, "are the only barrier between thee and the Christian princes. Hitherto my predecessors and myself have withstood all their efforts: with thy succor I shall fear them still less." Yusef accepted the proposal; a treaty of alliance was made; and the army of Abu Giafar was reinforced by a considerable body of Amoravides (A. H. 486,) with whom he repelled an invasion of Sancho, king of Aragon. A third division of the Africans, which marched to destroy the sovereignty of Algarve and Badajoz, was no less successful. Badajoz capitulated; but, in violation of the treaty, the dethroned Omar, with two of his sons, was surrounded and assassinated by a body of cavalry, as he was unsuspectingly journeying from the scene of his past prosperity in search of another asylum. A third son was placed in close confinement.*

487. Thus ended the petty kingdoms of Andalusia, after a stormy existence of about sixty years, and thus commenced the

2. *Dynasty of the Almoravides.*

487 For some years after the usurpation of Yusef, peace appears to have subsisted in Spain between the Mohammedans and the Christians. Fearing a new irruption of Africans, Alfonso contented himself with fortifying Toledo; and Yusef felt little inclination to renew the war with one whose prowess he had so fatally experienced. But Christian Spain was, at one moment, near the brink of ruin. The passion for the crusades was no less ardently felt by the Spaniards than by other nations of Europe: thousands of the best warriors were preparing to depart for the Holy Land, as if there was more merit in contending with the infidels, in a remote region, for a barren sepulchre, than at home for the

informed of Christian affairs, that he supposes Alfonso to have fallen in the battle of Zalaca:—"Victis tandem Christianis, Alphonsus fugiens, a suis, ut creditur, ne in hostis potestatem veniret, interfectus est." The bishop of Oviedo scarcely condescends to notice the success of the Mohammedans. Having minutely particularized the conquests of Alfonso, he thus speaks of the Almoravides: "Cum quibus prælia multa fecit (Alfonsus.) et multa contumelia dum vixit accepit ab eis." This is all the bishop will tell us about them.

* In relating the events of these times, we omit all mention of the Cid Ruy Diaz de Bivar; not so much that, with Masdeu, we doubt his existence, as that the actions recorded of him do not rest on sufficient authority. Of us personage more will be said in the proper place.

dearest interests of man—for honor, patriotism, and religion. Fortunately for Spain, pope Pascal II., in answer to the representations of Alfonso, declared that the proper post of every Spaniard was at home, and there were his true enemies.*

In A. H. 496, Yussef visited his new possessions in the Peninsula. At Cordova, which in imitation of the A. H. 496
Omeiyas he wished to honor as the capital, he convoked his walis and sheiks, and caused his second son Ali to be proclaimed heir of his vast empire. The instructions which he gave the young prince on this occasion, were founded on wisdom, and must impress us with a favorable idea of his capacity. To confer the chief governments on the faithful sheiks of Lamtuna alone; to preserve his frontier fortresses well guarded; to employ chiefly the Andalusians against the Christians, as much better acquainted than the Africans with the enemy's mode of warfare; to maintain 17,000 horsemen of his native tribe, besides a considerable number of Moors, always in Spain; to pay his troops punctually; to preserve the existing alliance with the sovereign of Saragossa, whose states formed so desirable a rampart against the incursions of the Christians; to honor all Mussulmans, and to exercise clemency;†—were among the chief admonitions which the prince received from his father. The latter soon afterwards returned to Morocco, where he died on the third day of the moon Muharram, A. H. 500, after living one hundred Arabian, or about ninety-seven Christian years.‡

ALI was only in his twenty-third year when he succeeded his father, whose military talents he inherited, and whom he surpassed in generosity. The readiness with which he pardoned his nephew, the son of his elder brother, who aspired to the throne, made a favorable impression on his subjects. One of his first acts was to visit Cordova, to receive the homage of the people: this was followed by a declaration of war against the Christians, the conduct of which he intrusted to his brother Temim. Near Ucles, an army of Castilians was cut to pieces, and the infant, don Sancho, the son of Alfonso, slain. But the Christian hero, though sorrowful, was not dismayed; he raised new levies, strengthened his fortifications of Toledo, and so imposed on the misbelievers that they dared not attack him. They obtained, indeed, some temporary success in Catalonia; but this was more

* When Bernardo, archbishop of Toledo, called at Rome on his way to Palestine, the pope expressed equal astonishment and displeasure that the prelate should leave his church while exposed to such dangers from the Africans. The humbled bishop returned to his see.—*Anales Toled.*

† We are told that he never pronounced a sentence of death; that his heaviest punishment was perpetual imprisonment.

‡ The same authorities as before.

than counterbalanced by subsequent reverses. On the death of Alfonso, however, in A. D. 1109, Ali again entered Spain at the head of 100,000 men, to prosecute in person the war against the Christians. But though he laid waste the territory of Toledo, and invested that city, he soon abandoned the siege in utter hopelessness, devastated the country as far as Madrid and Guadalaxara, and destroyed Talavera. These were poor results from such vast preparations. In the north the Christians were more fortunate. Under Alfonso I. of Aragon, they defeated and slew Abu Giafar in battle, and took Tuleda. With this able Mohammedan prince ended the greatness of the kingdom of Saragossa. His son, indeed, Abdelmelic, surnamed Amad Dola, was proclaimed in his place; but though the young prince was valiant, he was unable to contend with his formidable neighbor of Aragon. His independence being threatened on the one hand by the Almoravides, who appear to have destined him to an African fortress, and

on the other by the king of Aragon, in A. H. 510, he entered into an alliance with the latter, as the nearer and more dangerous of his enemies. In the same year Alfonso defeated and slew Mezdeli, the wali of Granada, and seized on Lerida. A second army sent by Ali had no better success; it was routed and compelled to retreat by the Christian king, who now openly expressed his resolution of besieging Saragossa, though the unfortunate Amad Dola did not deserve such treatment from an ally. In 512 (A. D. 1118) that important city, after a siege of some months, fell into the power of the Christians, and the north of Spain was for ever freed from the domination of the Mohammedans, though Amad Dola was permitted to reign over a diminished territory as the tributary of the Aragonese. The following year the Aragonian hero destroyed 20,000 of the Africans, who had advanced as far as the environs of Daroca; while another division of the Almoravides, under Ali in person, was compelled to retreat before the army of Leon and Castile.

At this very time (A. H. 514), the empire of the Almoravides was tottering to its fall. It had never been agreeable to the Mohammedans of Spain, whose manners, from their intercourse with a civilized people, were comparatively refined. The sheiks of Lamtuna were so many insupportable tyrants: the Jews, the universal agents for the collection of the revenues, were here, as in Poland, the most pitiless extortioners; every savage from the desert looked with contempt on the milder inhabitant of the Peninsula. The domination of these strangers was indeed so odious, that, except for the divisions between Alfonso and his ambitious queen donna

Urraca, who was sovereign in her own right,* all Andalusia might speedily have been subjected to the Christian yoke. Even while Ali remained in Spain, an open revolt of the inhabitants, who could not longer support the excesses of the barbarian guard, showed him on how precarious a basis his empire was founded. Those excesses, which consisted in laying waste the gardens, in forcibly entering the houses, in seizing the property, and insulting the wives and daughters of the Cordovans, were wholly unrestrained by the local authorities, notwithstanding the urgent representations of the sufferers. They now took righteous justice into their own hands: they rose against the Almoravides, of whom they massacred a considerable number. Ali felt that the example might be contagious, and he speedily marched on the revolted city. The inhabitants shut their gates; but at the same time sent a deputation to inform him that they had taken up arms, not against him, but their oppressors, and that they would cheerfully submit, if he would punish the guilty soldiery. At first he was too much incensed to listen to their reasonable demand; but as he found them resolved rather to perish than to submit unconditionally, and as the urgency of his African affairs was greater every day, he at length consented to treat A. H. 515. with them.†

But the cause which most menaced the existence of Ali's throne, and which was destined to change the whole face of western Africa and southern Spain, originated, like the power of Yussef ben Taksin, in the deserts bordering on Mount Atlas. Mohammed ben Abdalla, the son of a lamp-lighter in the mosque of Cordova, was distinguished for great curiosity and an insatiable thirst for knowledge. After studying for some years in the schools of his native city, he journeyed to Bagdad, to continue his studies under the celebrated doctors of that capital of the Mohammedan world. Of these doctors none was more famous than Abu Hamid Algazali, and, perhaps, none so free in the expression of his sentiments. He had written a book on the resurrection of the sciences and the law, which the *cadi* of Cordova had been the first to condemn, as containing opinions dangerous to the faith of Islam.‡ That condemnation had been approved by Ali; all the copies which could be found had been seized and committed to the flames.

* We must again observe, that the present section is not the place for entering into a minute relation of Christian affairs, which must be looked for in the next.

† Authorities,—the fragments of Casiri, D'Herbelot, the bishop of Oviedo, Rodrigo of Toledo, the bishop of Tuy, and Condé as spoiled by Marles.

‡ The writings of Algazali were also assailed by Mohammed ben Khalaf of Illiberia, *Confutatio Operum Doctoris Algiazali, titulo Lucubrationes. Ebu Alkhatib, Bibliotheca, pars viii.* (apud Casiri, ii. 87.). Spain, whether Mohammedan or Christian, was always zealous for orthodoxy.

When Mohammed took his place among the scholars of Algazali, he was asked the natural question, whether he had ever heard his master's writings spoken of in his native city. He endeavored to evade it; but being closely pressed by the doctor, he related what had happened. The writer grew pale; but, in a trembling voice, he demanded of Heaven vengeance on his impious judges, and on the king who had sanctioned their injustice. His disciples joined him in the prayer. "Pray Allah, also," said the stranger, "that I may be the instrument of thy vengeance!" Algazali added this prayer to the other.

Whether Mohammed was a fanatic or a knave, or composed of a large mixture of both, is not easy to be determined. On his return from Bagdad to Mauritania, he had no wish to revisit his native city, where he could expect little honor: he wandered from place to place, zealously preaching the doctrines of his master. His reception, however, was long cool; and from one town, where he had held forth in the mosque, he was compelled to flee to Tremecen. On his way he fell in with a youth, Abdelmumen by name, whom he persuaded to share his fortunes; and who, as we shall soon perceive, was to prove his most efficient ally. The two friends subsequently travelled to Fez, and thence to Morocco, to inculcate the new doctrine. One day they entered the grand mosque, and Mohammed immediately occupied the most prominent seat. He was informed that the place was reserved for the iman and the prince of the faithful. "The temples belong to Allah, and to Allah alone!" was the reply of the bold intruder, who, to the surprise of the audience, repeated the whole chapter of the Koran following that passage. In a few moments Ali entered, and all rose to salute him, with the exception of Mohammed, who did not even deign to cast a glance on the dreaded chief of a great empire. When the service was concluded, he approached Ali, and, in a voice loud enough to be heard by those around him, said,—"Provide a remedy for the afflictions of thy people! one day Allah will require thee to account for them!" The prince, who considered him as one of the rigidly righteous, or reputedly inspired,—a class which exist under different denominations in all Mohammedan states, and which may utter truths unpalatable to the great,—no further noticed his admonition than to ask him if he wanted any thing. "Nothing which this world can give!" he gravely replied: "my mission is to preach reformation, and to correct abuses!" Ali was struck by the words; he ordered his doctors and alfaquis to examine the principles of the pretended prophet. Most of them appeared to apprehend mischief if the impostor was allowed to harangue the multitude, which in all countries is apt

to confound change with reformation. One of them, who knew the influence which governed the mob better than his brethren, said to Ali,—“To-day load this mischief-seeker with fetters, or to-morrow he may sound in thy ears the trumpet of war!”* But the hagib, on whose judgment the emperor placed implicit reliance, ridiculed fears of danger from an obscure and ignorant teacher; and contended, that the best defence against seditious doctrines was in the good sense of the people. The artful rebel was permitted to follow his vocation until the excitement produced by his fanatic appeals to the ignorant populace was too great to be overlooked, and he was ordered to leave Morocco. At a short distance from the city, however, probably in its public cemetery, he built a hut among the graves, as a residence for himself and his faithful Abdelmumen. As he had anticipated, he was soon followed by crowds, who venerated his prophetic character, and who listened with pleasure to vehement denunciations which fell with terrific effect on their superiors. That, besides being zealous, he was learned and eloquent,† may be inferred both from the testimonies of historians, and from the mighty revolution which he effected. His tone now became bolder: he inveighed against the impiety of the Almoravides, who appear not to have been more popular in Mauritania than in Spain. Ali, who now perceived that the opinion of his philosophic hagib was woefully disproved by experience, ordered the rebel to be secured. Mohammed, who had timely notice of the fate intended him, fled to Agmat, accompanied by a host of proselytes; but finding that his liberty was still in danger, he hastily retreated to Tinmal in the province of Suz. His success in this region was so great, that he had soon an army of disciples, all devoted to his will, because all believed in his divine mission. For some time he preached to them the coming of the great mehedî,‡ who should teach all men the right way, and cause virtue and happiness to reign

* According to Abu Abdalla (Reges Almohaditæ, apud Casiri, ii. 219.), Mohammed fiercely disputed with the Moorish doctors on the depravation of morals, and even foretold the ruin of the empire.

† “Ferunt cum magni nominis fuisset theologum, traditiones omnes e medio sustulisse, divinoque, ut ipse jactabat, spiritu afflatum, futura præcinnisse.”—*Abu Abdalla*.

‡ Muhadi ou Mehedi, directeur et pontife de la religion Mussulmane.—*D’Herbelot*. The term was applied, *par excellence*, to the twelfth iman of the race of Ali. The second coming of the great iman, who should lead all nations into the unity of faith, was and is as confidently expected as the coming of the Messias by the Jews. Hence the successful imposture of Mohammed. “Le Mehedi d’Afrique prétendoit être cet imaun.” Some of the Shiites say, that this twelfth iman, Mohammed Abul Cassan by name, died in A. H. 320; others, “qu’il soit encore vivant, et qu’il passe sa vie miraculeuse dans la même grotte où il fut caché quand il disparut aux yeux des hommes.”—*Bibl. Orient.* The curious reader will find much to interest him in the art. Mohammed Abul Cassan, of the above elaborate and learned work.

over the whole earth; but he carefully refrained from acknowledging himself to be the mighty prophet; doubtless because he was fearful of shocking the credulity even of his own followers. One day, in conformity with a preconcerted plan, as he was expatiating on the change to be effected by the long-promised teacher and ruler, Abdelmumen and nine other men arose, saying—"Thou announcest a mehedî; the description applies only to thyself. Be our mehedî and iman; we swear to obey thee!" The Berbers, influenced by the example, in the same manner arose, and vowed fidelity even unto death. From this moment he assumed the high title of mehedî, and proclaimed himself as the founder of a new people. He instituted a regular government, confiding the administration to Abdelmumen, his minister, with nine associates, but reserving the control to himself. Seventy Berbers or Alarabs formed the council of the new government. An army of 10,000 horse, and a far greater number of foot, was speedily organized, with which he took the road to Agmat just as Ali returned to Morocco from Spain.*

A. H. 515. The wali of Suz. Abu Bekir, was ordered to disperse the rebels. But the appearance of the warrior-prophet was so imposing, that the general forbore to attack him; from his truly representing the danger as much more formidable than had been apprehended, a considerable reinforcement was dispatched from Morocco, and the whole army placed under the command of Ibrahim, brother of the emperor. Just as the signal for battle was given, the Almoravides fled, whether through treachery or superstition is uncertain; and the victors, if such they may be called, reaped an ample harvest of plunder. A second imperial army was vanquished after an obstinate struggle; and the proclamations of the mehedî, who invited all true Mussulmans to embrace his doctrines, on the penalty of everlasting perdition, added greatly to the embarrassments of Ali. In this state of anxiety he recalled his

516. brother Temim from Spain, whose military reputation stood deservedly high. The new general advanced against the prophet, who had intrenched himself among the strong-holds of the Atlas mountains. Notwithstanding the superiority of the rebel's position, Temim ordered his soldiers to scale the mountain. For some hours they rapidly ascended; but before reaching the summit, confusion suddenly seized their foremost

* Abu Abdalla, Vestis Acu Ficta, sive Reges Almohaditarum (apud Casiri, Biblioth. Arab.-Hisp. ii. 219.). Ximenes, *Historia Arabum*, cap. 49. D'Herbelot *Bibliothèque Orientale*, art. *Morabethah*, *Moahedoun*, &c. Condé, as spoiled by Marlès, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. ii. 318: 327.

D'Herbelot, in his meagre account of both the *Morabethah* (Almoravides,) and the *Moahedoun* (Almohades,) varies sometimes considerably from Casiri, and still more from Condé.

ranks,—the effect, beyond doubt, of their superstitious fears,—rank fell back on rank, and great numbers were forced precipitately down the rocks and dashed to pieces. The Almohades,* for such was the name assumed by the followers of Mohammed, now issued from their intrenchments, and the troops of Ali were a fourth time defeated.

But to gain battles was not sufficient for the mehedî. He now wanted some strong city to which he might retire in case fortune failed him, and where he might securely carry on his preparations for the mighty object he had in view. The situation of Tinmal was admirably adapted for his purpose. Placed on an elevated site, amidst the wildest mountains of the Daren chain, which extends from Tremecen to the ocean, and accessible only by two narrow defiles, each eight or ten leagues in length—the one leading to the great desert, the other to Morocco—a little labor only was required to render it impregnable. The road through these defiles, which was cut in the solid stone, which had on one hand frightful precipices, on the other perpendicular rocks, was intersected by several deep ravines, over which draw-bridges were thrown. But as if these natural and artificial advantages were insufficient, Tinmal was surrounded with thick walls; and as in the midst of the elevation a lofty and rugged rock reared its head, commanding a view of the neighboring mountains, a fortress was built on this summit, the ascent to which was by steps cut in the solid material. A broad fertile valley, stretching from the base of the elevation, and highly cultivated, furnished his followers with some of the more useful necessities; but as the number increased, he dispatched bodies of cavalry to plunder the inhabited plains beyond the defiles. The suffering people laid their complaints before Ali, who, by erecting a strong fortress at the mouth of one of these avenues, intercepted the inroads of these holy banditti, so long as they advanced in small bodies only.

At length Mohammed resolved to renew the war on the chief of the Almoravides, and to reduce the capital of Morocco. At his voice, 40,000 men took the field. As he was retained at Tinmal by an illness from which he had little hope of recovery, the white banner was intrusted to the sheik Abu Mohammed el Baxir, one of the ten who were sent with the army, A. H. 519. The preparations of Ali were immense: 100,000 men were ranged round his standard. They were again defeated, were pursued to the very walls of

* "Le véritable nom de cette secte fut Almohedi, c'est à dire Unitaires, parce que son principal institut étoit d'extirper les idolâtres qui reconnoissent plusieurs dieux, et les Chrétiens qui adorent un seul Dieu en trois personnes."—*Ferreras* (Hermilly's translation,) tom. iii. p. 347.

Morocco, and that capital invested with a vigor which showed that the Almohades were intent on its reduction. In the sorties made by the besieged, success remained on the side of the assailants, so that discouragement seized on the former. It is probable that Ali would soon have been compelled to capitulate, had not one of his inferior officers, Abdalla ben Humusqui by name, a native of Andalusia, importuned him to permit that officer to make another sortie at the head of 600 chosen men, and had not success attended the daring action. The little party returned with 300 heads of the enemy; a feat which proved that the Almohades were not invincible, and which infused new courage into the Almoravides. In this favorable disposition of mind, Ali led his troops against the rebels, whom he completely routed, Aben Baxir remaining dead on the field. The loss on the part of the besiegers would have been fatal, had not Abdelmumen rallied the fugitives, and effected an orderly retreat. When intelligence of this disaster reached Tinmal, the only question asked by Mohammed was, "Does Abdelmumen still live?" And on being answered in the affirmative, he added—"Then our empire is not lost!" But time was necessary to repair the misfortune, especially as some savage tribes of the desert withdrew from his banner, on finding that his power was that of a mere mortal.*

But if the Almoravides were this time successful in Africa, in Spain their affairs were growing daily worse. Alfonso of Aragon not only openly defied their force, but made an insulting tour through Andalusia, defeating all who opposed him, driving away the cattle of the fields, and laying waste the labors of the husbandmen. Yet this expedition availed him nothing: the Muzarabs of Granada, many of whom joined his army, had flattered him with the hope of obtaining that city; but on finding Temim, who had just arrived from Africa, drawn up under the walls of the place, he desisted from what he considered a hopeless enterprise. He turned aside to continue his system of pillage, was followed and assailed in the mountains; but inflicted so terrible a blow on the Almoravides, that they retreated to their fortresses, leaving him to work his pleasure on the open plains. Arriving on the borders of the Mediterranean, he caused some fish to be caught, which he ate on the beach, to fulfil, as he said, a vow that he would eat fish, ere his return, on the coast of Granada. Having remained in Andalusia as long as he felt disposed, he slowly returned to his dominions, bringing with him a considerable number of Muzarabs, whom he settled chiefly in Sara-

* The same authorities as last quoted, except Ximenes, *Historia Arabum*.

gossa. But their brethren were punished for this daring outrage of the king, or rather for their supposed participation in it. By order of Ali, such as were suspected of corresponding with him were exiled to Africa; the rest of the Muzarabs were dispersed in the interior of Mohammedan Spain. In A. H. 520, Temim died at Granada, and was succeeded in the government of the country by Taxfin, the son of Ali, who in two succeeding engagements triumphed over the Christians of Leon, but derived no advantage from his success.*

The period was now come when the mehedî again resolved to try the fortune of war. With 30,000 cavalry, A. H. 523 and a considerable number of infantry, he hoped to wipe out the stain of the last defeat under the walls of Morocco. As his illness still continued, he confided the command to his favorite disciple Abdelmumen, whom he invested with the dignity of imam. In A. H. 523, the new general completely defeated the Almoravides, and pursued them as before to the gates of Morocco. But he forbore to besiege the place, doubtless from a persuasion that his present forces were unequal to the enterprise; and he returned to Tinmal. The mehedî came out to meet him, praised his conduct and the valor of his troops, and commanded all to assemble the following day near the great mosque, to bid adieu to their chief. All wondered at the command, except such as were acquainted with his long hidden disease. When all were met, he exhorted them to persevere in the doctrine he had taught them; announced his approaching death; and, when he saw them dissolved in tears, inculcated the duty of resignation to the divine will. He then retired with his beloved disciple, to whom he presented the book containing the tenets of his faith,—a book which he had received from the hands of Algazali. The fourth day he expired, which was the third of the moon Muharram, A. H. 524. His manners are represented as rigid, and his character as severe. He was sanguinary, we are told, as the tiger of the desert: those whom he condemned to death—and the least crimes were so punished—were often buried alive. The chiefs of the state were soon afterwards assembled to deliberate on the form of government: a monarchy was chosen; and, by their unanimous suffrages, Abdelmumen was proclaimed imam and almumenin.

For the next three years the new caliph was diligently employed in extending his conquests. The whole country, from

* Zurita, *Anales de la Corona de Aragon* (regno de Alfonso I.). *Chronica Adefonsi Imperatoris*, p. 334, &c. (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, tom. xxi.). This Chronicle of the emperor Alfonso is the most valuable of all in these times: it is clear, comparatively minute, and faithful. Condé, by Marles, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. tom. ii.

the mountains of Darah to Salé, all Fez and Teza, received his spiritual and temporal yoke. The empire of the Almoravides was now bounded within a narrow sphere. Ali became dejected and unhappy: his troops were everywhere defeated; his towns were rapidly delivered into the power of a savage enemy, who had vowed his destruction; and though, in compliance with the advice of his counsellors, he associated with him in the empire his son Taxfin, whose exploits in Spain had obtained him much celebrity, that prince was long too busily occupied with the Christians, and his discontented subjects of Andalusia, to prop the declining empire in Africa.

Though Alfonso, the king of Aragon, had fallen at the siege of Fraga, the Almoravides had met with an equally valiant foe in his son, Alfonso Raymond, king of Leon and Castile. Several of the Andalusian cities openly rebelled, and were not reduced to obedience without incredible efforts, and without the exhibition of equal valor and decision on the part of Taxfin; and after that prince joined his father to repel the formidable Abdelmumen, the affairs of both suffered greatly by his absence.

In A. H. 533, the count of Portugal triumphed over the Almoravides on the famous plains of Ourique, when his soldiers unanimously hailed him as king. Finally, the bloody contentions which broke out between the Andalusians and the Africans; the struggles of each for the fairest cities of Mohammedan Spain; the triumph of the former; the expulsion of the latter from most of the places they had so long occupied; and, above all, the victories of Abdelmumen in Mauritania, brought the proud empire of the Almoravides to the very brink of ruin.

537 TAXFIN BEN ALI succeeded in A. H. 537* to his father, who died at Morocco, more from grief at the declining to state of affairs, than from any other cause. His first object was to assemble an army to strike another blow for the defence of his empire. At first he was successful. Abdelmumen was compelled to fall back on his mountain; but in a second action Taxfin was defeated; in a third he was also compelled to retreat. Being pursued into Tremecen, he made a vigorous defence; and, after a few unsuccessful assaults, Abdelmumen, leaving a considerable force to continue the siege, turned his arms against Oran, the reduction of which he hoped would prevent the meditated flight of Taxfin from Mauritania into Andalusia. Vessels, indeed, were lying in that port ready to receive the unfortunate monarch, should Africa

* Abu Abdalla (apud Casiri, ii. 218.) assigns 537 as the period of Ali's death; Condé (supposing Marlés to be right) gives 739: we prefer the account of the former; for, as Taxfin himself died in 739, there seems too little time for the actions recorded of him, if we admit the same year to have witnessed his accession and fall.

he lost to him. As it was impossible for him longer to withstand the hostilities of Abdelmumen, and as his treasures were already in Oran, he attached the highest importance to the preservation of that place. Taking a small but determined body of horsemen from Tremecen, he cut his way through the camp of the Almohades, and threw himself into Oran, which was on the point of capitulating. It now held out with renewed vigor; but the perseverance of the besiegers was not in the least diminished, and Ali saw that his only hope of safety lay in an escape to Spain. One night he resolved to make a desperate effort to gain the port where his vessels were still riding at anchor. Unfortunately either he mistook his way, or his mule was terrified by the roaring of the waves; for the next morning his mangled corpse was found at the foot of a precipice on the beach. His head was sent to Tinmal; Oran capitulated, and Abdelmumen entered it in triumph, early in the moon Muharram, A. H. 540.

But Morocco, Fez, and some other cities were yet in the power of the Almoravides, who raised **IBRAHIM ABU A. H. 540.**
ISHAC, son of Taxfin, to the throne. The vindictive Abdelmumen, however, left them little time to breathe. Tremecen he took by assault, and massacred the inhabitants; Fez he also reduced; so that Morocco was now the only city which acknowledged Ibrahim. While Abdelmumen undertook to reduce it, he dispatched his general, Abu Amram, to invade Andalusia. Several of the walis, who, after expelling the Almoravides, began to reign as petty sovereigns, finding that they were too feeble to maintain themselves in their usurped authority, declared for the Almohades. Algeziras, Gibraltar, and Xeres opened their gates without delay; and Aben Cossai, 541.
 the governor of Algarve, joined Abu Amram with all his forces. In the mean time the siege of Morocco was prosecuted with vigor. The inhabitants were so fatally repulsed in a sortie, that they durst no longer venture outside the walls. Famine soon aided the sword: the number who died of starvation is said to have amounted to three fourths of the whole population. Such a place could not long hold out; and, accordingly, it was carried in the first general assault. Ibrahim and the surviving sheiks were instantly brought before the conqueror. On seeing the youth and prepossessing appearance of the emperor, Abdelmumen showed some signs of pity, and even an intention to spare him, when one of his generals exclaimed, "Wilt thou spare a young lion, which may one day devour us all!" At the same moment Ibrahim knelt, and begged for life: "Wretch!" cried one of his sheiks and kinsmen, "why add shame to misfortune? Art thou kneeling to a father, or to a wild beast which lives only on blood?" The expostulation of his own sheik, and

the irritating apostrophe of the Moor, sealed the fate of Ibrahim. Not only were he and his chiefs led out to instant execution, but a general massacre of the surviving inhabitants was ordered. The few who were spared were sold as slaves; the mosques were destroyed, and new ones erected; and the tribes of the desert were called to repeople the now solitary streets.*

A. H. During these memorable exploits in Africa, the Christians were rapidly increasing their dominions. Coria, 543 Mora, &c. were in the power of Alfonso, styled the emperor; and almost every contest between the two natural enemies had turned to the advantage of the Christians. So long, indeed, as the walis were eager only to preserve or to extend their authority, independent of each other and of every superior, this success need not surprise us: we may rather be surprised that the Mohammedans were allowed to retain any footing in the Peninsula. Probably they would at this time have been driven from it but for the seasonable arrival of the victorious Almohades. Both Christians and Africans now contended for the superiority. While the troops of Alfonso reduced Baeza, and, with a Mohammedan ally, even Cordova, Malaga and Seville acknowledged Abu Amram. Calatrava and Almeria next fell to the Christian emperor, about the same time that Lisbon and the neighboring towns received don Enrique, the new sovereign of Portugal. Most of these conquests, however, were subsequently recovered by the Almohades. Being reinforced by a new army from Africa, the latter pursued their successes with greater vigor. They reduced Cordova, which was held by an ally of Alfonso; defeated, and for ever paralyzed, the expiring efforts of the Almoravides; and proclaimed their emperor Abdelmumen as sovereign of all Mohammedan Spain.†

3. *Dynasty of the Almohades.*

543 ABDELMUMEN, as if desirous of subduing, not merely
to what had formed the empire of the Almoravides, but all
558. the regions which owned the faith of Islam, levied army
after army; so that from Portugal to Tunis and Cairwan his wild hordes spread devastation and dismay. To detail the events of the wars sustained by his general, or his son, the Cid Yussef, in Andalusia, would afford little interest

* Abu Abdalla, Vestis Acu Picta, sive Regum Almorabitarum Series, necnon Reges Almohad, (apud Casiri Bibl. Arab. Hisp. ii. 218—220.). Condé, as spoiled by Marlés, Histoire de la Domination, &c. ii. 334—395. D'Herbelot, Bibliothèque Orientale, art. Moahdoun, &c.

† The same authorities, with the addition of Chronica Adefonsi Imperatoris (apud Florez, España Sagrada, xxi.), and the Anales Toledanos, i. (apud eundem, p. 388.) Chronicon Conimbricense, p. 332. (apud eundem, tom. xxiii.), and Chronicon Lusitanum (apud eundem, xiv. 407, &c.)

to the reader. It will be sufficient to observe, that, by slow but sure degrees, the whole of Andalusia was incorporated with his empire. Once only did he visit Spain, if remaining a few hours at Gibraltar can deserve the name. In A. H. 557, however, on hearing of the dissensions existing among the Christian princes after the death of the emperor Alfonso, he declared his determination of subduing all Spain in person. He solemnly published the alhied, or holy war; and at the call, all western and northern Africa was in motion, from Tunis to the ocean, and from the Great Desert to Ceuta. Sulé was the rendezvous for his formidable army, which is said—no doubt the number is exaggerated—to have consisted of 100,000 horse and 300,000 foot. With this force—the greatest which had been seen since the days of the emir Abderahman—he regarded the subjugation of the country as inevitable. But an enemy, against which not all his armies could avail him, now assailed him: on the 8th day of Jumadi II. A. H. 558, he breathed his last. He had always designed his son Cid Mohammed for his successor; but, from some dissatisfaction with the conduct of that prince, he changed his will, six days before his death, in favor of his son Yusef, whose talents he had long learned to appreciate.*

On his accession, YUSEF ABU YACUB dismissed the army which lay at Sulé. During the following few A. H. 558 years he appears to have cultivated the blessings of to 572 peace: it was not until A. H. 566 that he entered Spain, for the first time since his elevation. He found the country tranquil, with the exception of some occasional acts of hostility committed by Mohammed ben Sad, king of Valencia, who, being usually in alliance with the Christians, had been able to set at defiance the power of the Almohades; but owing to this very alliance his throne was insecure. Soon after Yusef's arrival, the wali of Xucar, who had hidden himself in Valencia during the absence of Mohammed, so wrought on the fanaticism of the inhabitants, that they consented to introduce the Almohades into the city. In vain did the deposed king endeavor to recover his throne: after three months of ineffectual hostilities, he sought an asylum in Majorca; his sons, who were walis of Denia, Murcia, Alicante, &c. being too weak to contend with the Almohades, declared themselves vassals of Yusef. Thus all Mohammedan Spain owned the emperor.†

Notwithstanding the destructive wars which had prevailed near a century, neither Moors nor Christians had acquired

* Authorities, the fragments of Casiri, D'Herbelot, and Condé, by Marlés, nearly in the places last quoted.

† On this occasion Yusef built a magnificent mosque at Seville.

much advantage by them. From the reduction of Saragossa to the present time, the victory, indeed, had generally declared for the Christians: but their conquests, with the exception of Lisbon and a few fortresses in central Spain, were lost almost as soon as gained; and the same fate attended the equally transient successes of the Mohammedans. The reasons why the former did not permanently extend their territories, were their internal dissensions: while Leon was at war with Castile, or Castile with Leon, or either with Aragon, we need not wonder that the united Almoravides, or their successors the Almohades, should sometimes triumph; but those triumphs were sure to be followed by reverses whenever not all, but any one, of the Christian states was at liberty to assail its natural enemy. The Christians, when at peace among themselves, were always too many for their Mohammedan neighbors, even when the latter were aided by the whole power of western Africa.

In A. H. 572 the king of Castile reduced Caenza, and the Moors were defeated before Toledo: the following year the Portuguese were no less successful before Abrantes, which the Africans had besieged. These disasters roused the wrath of Yussef; but as an obscure rebellion required his presence at that time in Mauritania, he did not land in Spain, until A. H. 580. He marched without delay against Santarem, which his soldiers had vainly besieged some years before. Wishing to divide the Portuguese force, he one night sent an order to his son Cid Abu Ishac, who lay encamped near him, to march with the Andalusian cavalry on Lisbon. The officer who carried the order instead of Lisbon named Seville: the whole Mussulman army were sure that some disaster was impending, and that the siege was to be raised: before morning the camp was deserted, the guard alone of Yussef remaining. While he dispatched orders to recall the alarmed fugitives, the Christians, who were soon aware of the retreat, issued from the walls, surrounded and massacred the guard. Yussef defended himself like a hero: six of the advancing assailants he laid low, before the same fate was inflicted on himself. The merciless carnage of the Christians spared not even his female attendants. At this moment two companies of cavalry arrived, and, finding their monarch dying, furiously charged the Christians, whom they soon put to flight. In a few hours the whole army returned, and, inspired with the same hope of vengeance, they stormed and took the place, and put every living creature to the sword.*

* *Chronicon Conimbricense* (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, xxiii. 330, &c.). *Chronicon Lusitanum* (apud eundem, xiv. 406.). *Annales Compostellani*,

YACUB BEN YUSSEF, from his victories afterwards named Almansor, who was then in Spain, was immediately declared successor to his father. For some years he was not personally opposed to the Christians, though his walis carried on a desultory indecisive war: he was long detained in Africa, first in quelling some domestic commotions, and afterwards by severe illness. He was scarcely recovered, when the intelligence that the Christians were making insulting irruptions to the very outworks of Algeziras, made him resolve on punishing their audacity. His preparations were of the most formidable description. In 501 he landed in Andalusia, and proceeded towards Valencia, where the Christian army then lay. There Alfonso VIII. king of Castile was awaiting the expected reinforcements from his allies, the kings of Leon and Navarre. Both armies pitched their tents on the plains of Alarcon. The chiefs of both naturally felt anxious for the result; but the charge of rashness cannot be erased from the memory of Alfonso, for venturing to withstand, alone, a conflict with the overwhelming force of the enemy, instead of falling back to effect a junction with his allies. On the eve of the battle, Yacub convoked a council of war; but such was the multitude of his officers, that he was compelled to receive in his tent first the Almohades, next the Alarabes, now the Berber sheiks, then the officers of the volunteer troops, and, lastly, the Andalusians. To the last he said, "I have found among the different officers I have just consulted many of great valor, and ready to die, if need be, for the defence of the faith; but I have conversed with none acquainted with the tactics of these infidels. For this reason, my confidence, brave Andalusians, must rest on you alone."—"Prince of the true believers," was the reply, "we have among us an officer on whose talents and courage thou mayest rely: consult him!" From the advice of this officer, Yacub drew up the plan for the battle: the Almohades and Andalusians were to lead the attack; the Berber troops and the volunteers were to sustain it; the third division, containing the royal guard and the negroes, commanded by the king in person, were to take a circuit, and during the action fall on the flanks of the enemy. The following day the Christians commenced the attack, and with so much impetuosity that the centre was soon broken. But an Andalusian chief conducted a strong body of his men against Alfonso, who with the reserve occupied the hill above the plain. While the struggle was in all its fury, Yacub and his division took the

p. 322. (apud eundem, tom. xxiii.) *Anales Toledanos*, i. p. 388. (in eodem tomo.). *Anales Toledanos*, ii. p. 404. (in eodem tomo.). To these Christian authorities add the Mohammedan writers so frequently quoted.

Christians in flank. The result was fatal to the Castilian army, which, discouraged at what it considered a new enemy, gave way in every direction. Alfonso, preferring an honorable death to the shame of defeat, prepared to plunge into the heart of the Mohammedan squadrons, when his nobles surrounded him, and forced him from the field. His loss must have been immense, amounting probably to 20,000 men. With a generosity very rare in a Mohammedan, and still more in an African, Yacub restored his prisoners to liberty,—an action for which, we are informed, he received few thanks from his followers. Alfonso retreated to Toledo just as the king of Leon arrived with the promised reinforcement. The latter naturally upbraided him for his rashness,—perhaps in no very courteous terms; for the two kings quarrelled, and separated as enemies. The king of Leon, returning to his states, laid waste the territories of Castile, in revenge for the insulting expressions of his exasperated ally; and the king of Navarre, when he heard that he too had not been spared in the ill-humored remarks of the Castilian, followed the example set him by his brother of Leon. Alfonso prepared to make war on both, as if he had not sustained any defeat, and as if he had nothing whatever to fear from the victorious forces of Yusef! This criminal folly is very characteristic of the Christian princes of Spain during the middle ages. He was at length persuaded to sue for peace with the king of Navarre; but only that he might have leisure to fall with greater effect on his cousin of Leon. Fortunately for the interests of Christianity and of Spain, the timely interference of the prelates brought about a reconciliation between the two princes: Alfonso even consented to bestow the hand of his daughter Berengaria on the king of Leon.* From this marriage a prince was born (St. Fernando,) who united the two crowns. After this signal victory Yacub rapidly reduced Calatrava, Guadaluara, Madrid and Esalona, Salamanca, &c. Toledo, too, he invested, but in vain. He returned to Africa, caused his son Mohammed to be declared wali alhadi, and died, the 22d day of the moon Regeb, A. H. 595.† He left behind him the char-

* The pope subsequently annulled this marriage; but the legitimacy of Fernando was never disputed.

† A. H. 595 opens November 2. 1198.

Muharram	30	November	29
Safir	29	December	31
Rabia I.	30	January	31
Rabia II.	29	February	28
Jumadi I.	30	March	31
Jumadi II.	29	April	30
Regeb	22	May	19

acter of an able, a valiant, a liberal, a just, and even magnanimous prince,—of one who labored more for the real welfare of his people than any other potentate of his age. He was, beyond doubt, the greatest and best of the Almohades.*

The character of MOHAMMED ABU ABDALLAH, surnamed Alnassir, was very different from that of his great father. Absorbed in effeminate pleasures, he paid little attention to the internal administration of his empire, or to the welfare of his people. Yet he was not insensible to martial fame; and he accordingly showed no indisposition to forsake his harem for the field. After quelling two inconsiderable rebellions, he prepared to punish the audacity of Alfonso of Castile, who made destructive inroads into Andalusia. Much as the world had been astounded at the preparations of his grandfather Yussef, they were not surpassed by his own, if, as we are credibly informed, one alone of the five divisions of his army amounted to 160,000 men. It is certain that a year was required for the assembling of this vast armament, that two months were necessary to convey it across the straits, and that all Christian Europe was filled with alarm at its disembarkation. Innocent III. proclaimed a crusade to Spain; and Rodrigo of Toledo, the celebrated historian, accompanied by several prelates, went from one court to another, to rouse the Christian princes. While the kings of Aragon and Navarre promised to unite their forces with their brother of Castile to repel the common danger, great numbers of volunteers from Portugal and southern France hastened to the general rendezvous at Toledo, the pope ordered fasting, prayers, and processions to be made, to propitiate the favor of Heaven, and to avert from Christendom the greatest danger that had threatened it since the days of the emir Abderahman.

Mohammed opened the campaign of A. H. 608 by the siege of Salvatierra, a strong but not important fortress of Estremadura, defended by the knights of Calatrava. That he should waste his forces on objects so incommensurate with their extent, proves how little he was qualified to wield

* Abu Abdalla, *Vestis Acu Picta, seu Reges Almohad.* (apud Casiri Bibl. ii. 220.) *Almohaidus, Supplementum* (apud eundem, ii. 221.). Condé, as spoiled by Mariés, *Histoire de la Domination, &c.*, ii. 417—446. D'Herbelot, *Bibliothèque Orientale*, art. Jacoub, &c. To these add the Christian authorities—the *Chronicles* in the invaluable work of Florez—last quoted.

† Sancho, king of Navarre is justly accused of backwardness, at least, in joining the Christian alliance. He even sought that of Yacub and Mohammed, on condition that his own states should be spared, or perhaps amplified at the expense of his neighbors. If the Arabian writers are correct, he privately waited on Mohammed in Seville; but the result of the interview is unknown.

‡ The king of Portugal was not present in this campaign, confidently as the contrary has been asserted by most historians. *La Clède, Histoire Générale de Portugal*, tom. ii.

them. The place stood out for several months, and did not surrender until the emperor had sustained a heavy loss, nor until the season was too far advanced to permit any advantage to be derived from this partial success. By suspending the execution of his great design until the following season, he allowed Alfonso time to prepare for the contest. The following June, the kings of Leon and Castile having assembled at Toledo, and been joined by a considerable number of foreign volunteers,* the Christian army advanced towards the south. That of the infidels lay in the neighborhood of Baeza, and extended to the Sierra Morena. As the former passed, the strong fortresses of Malagon and Calatrava were wrested from the Mohammedans; conquests which more than counterbalanced the loss of Salvatierra. But here a misfortune befell the Christian cause which damped the ardor of its supporters. The foreign volunteers, after the capitulation of the latter fortress, declared their resolution to return home; and return they did, in opposition to the entreaties of Alfonso and his ally of Aragon. That they were disappointed in the share of plunder they expected, and at the escape of the garrison, whom they had piously hoped to massacre, is probable both from their ferocious habits, and from the devastations they committed even on the possessions of their allies. As these holy robbers returned by way of Toledo, they endeavored to obtain an entrance; but the inhabitants, who knew them too well, shut the gates in their faces, and from the ramparts upbraided them both for their cowardice and for the desertion of their religion. This loss of near 30,000 men greatly weakened the crusaders; but the seasonable though tardy arrival of don Sancho, king of Aragon, with a considerable reinforcement, raised their courage.

On July 12th, the crusaders reached the mountainous chain which divides New Castile from Andalusia.† They found not only the passes, but the summits of the mountains, occupied by the Almohades. To force a passage was impossible; and they even deliberated on retreating, so as to draw out, if possible, the enemy from positions so formidable, when a shepherd‡ entered the camp of Alfonso, and proposed to conduct the Christian army, by a path unknown to both armies, to the summit of this elevated chain,—by a path, too,

* Some of these were furnished by Simon de Montfort, then engaged in the war against the Albigenses.

† At the port of Muradal, above an hour's brisk ride from Tolosa.

‡ "*Missus a Deo*," says Roderic, and the same is said by king Alfonso and don Lucas of Tuy. Of course this shepherd must be an angel. "Mas de 300 años despues del suceso comenzaron algunos á decir que aquel aldeano fue San Isidro, labrador, natural de Madrid. Des de entonces hasta nuestros dias ha tenido esta opinion contrarios y defensores."—Ortiz, *Compendio Cronologico de la Historia de España*, tom. iii. p. 251.

which would be invisible to the enemy's outposts. A few companies having accompanied the man, and found him equally faithful and well informed, the whole army silently ascended, and intrenched themselves on the summit, the level of which was extensive enough to contain them all. Below appeared the wide-spread tents of the Moslems, whose surprise was great on perceiving the heights thus occupied by the crusaders. For two days the latter, whose fatigues had been harassing, kept their position; but on the third day they descended into the plains of Tolosa, which were about to be immortalized by their valor. Their right wing was led by the king of Navarre, their left by the king of Aragon, while Alfonso took his station in the centre. Mohammed had drawn up his army in a similar manner; but, with a strong body of reserve, he occupied an elevation well defended besides by vast iron chains, which surrounded his impenetrable guard.* In one hand he held a useless scimitar, in the other the Koran. The attack was made by the Christian centre against that of the Mohammedans; and immediately the two wings moved against those of the enemy. The African centre, which consisted of the 160,000 volunteers, made a determined stand; and though it was broken, it soon rallied, on being reinforced from the reserve. At one time, indeed, the superiority of number was so great on the part of the Mussulmans, that the troops of Alfonso appeared about to give way. At this moment that king, addressing the archbishop Rodrigo, who was with him, said,—“Let us die here, prelate!” and he prepared to rush amidst the dense ranks of the enemy. The prelate, however, and a Castilian general, retained him by the bridle of his horse, representing the rashness of his purpose, and advising him to reinforce his weak points by new succors. Accordingly those succors, among which were the vassals with the pennon of the archbishop, advanced to support the sinking Castilians. This manœuvre decided the fortune of the day.† The Mohammedan centre, after a sharp conflict, was again broken, this time irretrievably, and a way opened to the intrenchments of the emperor. Seeing the success of their allies, the two wings charged their opponents with double fury, and triumphed likewise. But the Africans‡ rallied round Mohammed, and presented a mass deep and formidable to the conquerors. Rodrigo, with his brother prelate, the archbishop of Narbonne, now incited the Christians to overcome this last obstacle: both intrepidly accompa-

* These chains are not mentioned by the Arabs; but what can be expected from their brevity?

† The standard-bearer of Rodrigo, don Domingo Pasquel, canon of Toledo, showed that he was well fitted to serve the church militant; he twice carried his banner through the heart of the Mohammedan forces.

‡ The Arabian account says that the Andalusians were the first to flee.

nied the van of the centre. The struggle was terrific, but short: myriads of the barbarians fell; the boundary was first broken down by the king of Navarre; the Castilians and Aragonese followed; all opponents were massacred or fled; and the victors began to ascend the eminence on which Mohammed still remained. Seeing the total destruction or flight of his vast host, the emperor sorrowfully exclaimed, "Allah alone is just and powerful; the devil is false and wicked!" Scarcely had he uttered the truism, when an Alarab approached, leading by the hand a strong but nimble mule. "Prince of the faithful!" said the African, "how long wilt thou remain here? Dost thou not perceive that thy Mussulmans flee? The will of Allah be done! Mount this mule, which is fleetier than the bird of heaven, or even the arrow which strikes it: never yet did she fail her rider: away! for on thy safety depends that of us all!" Mohammed mounted the beast, while the Alarab ascended the emperor's horse, and both soon outstripped not only the pursuers but the fugitives. The carnage of the latter was dreadful, until darkness put an end to it. The victors now occupied the tents of the Mohammedans, while the two martial prelates sounded the *Te Deum* for the most splendid success which had shone on the banners of the Christians since the time of Charles Martel. The loss of the Africans, even according to the Arabian writers, who admit that the centre was wholly destroyed, could not fall short of 160,000 men.*

The reduction of several towns, from Tolosa to Baeza immediately followed this glorious victory,—a victory in which don Alfonso nobly redeemed his failure in the field of Zalaca, and which, in its immediate consequences, involved the ruin of the Mohammedan empire in Spain. After an unsuccessful attempt on Ubeda, as the hot season was raging, the allies returned to Toledo, satisfied that the power of Mohammed was for ever broken. That emperor, indeed, did not long survive his disaster. Having precipitately fled to Morocco, he abandoned himself to licentious pleasures, left the cares of government to his son, or rather his ministers, and died the 10th day of the moon Shaffan, A. H. 610, not without suspicion of poison.†

* Of this great battle we have an account by four eye-witnesses:—1. By king Alfonso, in a letter to the pope; 2. by the historian Rodrigo of Toledo; 3. by Arnaud, archbishop of Narbonne; 4. by the author of the Annals of Toledo.

By recent writers of Spain, the number of slain on the part of the Africans was 900,000; on that of the Christians, twenty-five individuals only! Of course, the whole campaign is represented as miraculous; and, indeed, actual miracles are recorded, which we have neither space nor inclination to notice.

† Abu Abdalla, Vestis Acu Picta, sen Reges Almohad. (apud Casiri Bibl. Arab. Hisp. ii. 220.) Ximenes, Rerum in Hispania Gestarum, lib. viii. cap. 9—11. (apud Schottum, Hispania Illustrata, tom. ii.) Condé, by Marlés,

The reign of YUSSEF ABU YACUB, who was only eleven years of age on the death of his father, was a scene of continued troubles. His uncles, the governors of Spain and Mauritania, took advantage of his minority to aim at absolute independence in their respective governments. As he grew in years, he exhibited no signs of capacity or vigor: his days were passed in his harem, or with his shepherds in superintending the breeding of sheep.* His death without issue, in A. H. 620, was the signal for troubles. ABUL MELIC ABDELWAHID, brother of Mohammed Anasir, succeeded to the disputed inheritance; but in eight months the very sheiks who had elected him deprived him at once of empire and of life, in favor of ABDALLAH ABU MOHAMMED, surnamed *Aladel*, governor of Valencia and Murcia, who had assumed the regal title. This prince never left Spain: indeed he was too busily occupied in defending his states against Fernando III., king of Leon, and heir to the crown of Castile, to think of abandoning the country. But the Christian hero was not to be resisted. The brother of Aladel, who reigned at Baeza and Jaen, was compelled to own the supremacy of Fernando; and the same fate was eventually forced on Aladel himself. This subjection, or rather, perhaps, the disposition he showed to restrain the tyranny of the walis, which had been unbounded since the defeat of Tolosa, occasioned his fall. A conspiracy was formed against him, and he was strangled in his bed, A. H. 622.

ALMAMUN ABU ALI, brother of Aladel, was next proclaimed king of Mauritania and Spain. He, too, by his projected reforms, made as many enemies as there were walis. Of these enemies, however, the most vindictive were the members of the two councils which had been instituted by the mehedi, and the powers of which he openly declared his resolution of modifying. It was time, indeed, that these haughty senators, who had procured the destruction of the two preceding monarchs, should be displaced. But their authority was great, because in some degree sacred in the eyes of the Almohades; and Almamun was compelled to begin his meditated reforms by writing a treatise against the institutions of the legislator of Tinnal. To avert the threatened storm, that body immediately proclaimed *Yahia ben Anasir* prince of the

Histoire de la Domination, &c. ii. 447—466. D'Herbelot, Bibliothèque Orientale, art. Mohammed. Chronicon Burgense, p. 309. (apud Flores, España Sagrada, tom. xxiii.) Anales Compostellani, p. 323. (apud eundem et in eodem tomo.) Anales Toledanas, i. (in eodem tomo, p. 395, &c.) These annals contain the best account of the battle of Las Navas de Tolosa. Chronicon Cerratense (apud eundem, ii. 212.)

* "Is omni animi remisso vigore, curam tantum in alenda animalia lucri causâ contulit."—*Abu Abdalla*.

faithful, and supplied him with troops to invade Andalusia, and to expel Almamun. Near the city of Sidonia, Almamun triumphed over his rival, and from that moment openly vowed the destruction of the senate at Morocco. But the hostilities of the Christians, who on one side had taken Elvas and ruined Badajoz, on another had seized on Loxa and Alhambra, were besieging Jaen and devastating Valencia, detained him some time longer in Spain. Having, at length, not recovered the lost towns, but forced the Christian princes to retire (satisfied, no doubt, with the result of the present campaign) he hastened to Morocco with such expedition and secrecy that he arrived there before the news of his departure from Andalusia. He

instantly assembled the sheiks who formed the two councils, and, after upbraiding them for their disloyalty, ordered them to be beheaded in the court-yard of his palace. Similar orders were also sent into the provinces with regard to such walis as he knew were hostile to his government; and the number of heads which in a few days arrived in the capital was so great, that the inhabitants were terrified at the bare appearance of a negro or Andalusian of the royal guard,—the ministers by whom these orders were executed. The heads, we are told, were hung around the ramparts; nor would the tyrant remove them even when the stench arising from their putridity was almost intolerable. "Nothing is so sweet," he replied, "as the head of a dead enemy! It must be odoriferous to all who love me: it can stink in the nostrils of them only who hate me!" These bloody executions were followed by the abrogation of the laws of the mehedî, whose very name was expunged from the public prayers, and even from the coins and monuments.

But if Almamun thus triumphed in Africa, his affairs wore a different aspect in Spain, which was now to continue the prey of revolt until most of the territories still owning the Mohammedan power were subjugated by the Christians. In Andalusia there was a sheik, descended from the kings of Saragossa, Abu Abdalla Mohammed ben Hud by name, who formed the design of rescuing the country from the now feeble because divided grasp of the Almohades, and of founding for himself a new kingdom. Having assembled a considerable number of followers, whom his liberality, no less than hatred to the Almohades, attached to his cause, and who, in the rocky environs of Urxiza,* proclaimed him king of the Mussulmans in Spain, he actively commenced hostilities. His proclamations, in which he promised that a moderate settled tribute should be substituted for the vexatious oppressions of

* A little town at the foot of the Alpujarras, a few leagues from the sea.

the Africans, gained him many partisans. For some time, however, his success was retarded by Yahia ben Alnasir, who had been defeated by Almamun, and who claimed the allegiance of the Almohades. To add to the confusions already existing, Almamun himself arrived in Spain to support his tottering fortunes. Having purchased a truce from Fernando, he proceeded to combat the rebels. Over the wali of Baeza, an ally of the Christians, he easily triumphed; but in a battle near Tarifa, against the enterprising Aben Hud, he was ^{A. H.} signally defeated, and compelled to flee into Africa. 626. Yahia now sought the alliance of the victor, with the view of obtaining a division of Mohammedan Spain; but Aben Hud evaded the proposal, and, by rapidly reducing Murcia, Denia, Xativa, &c., showed that he aspired to an undivided sovereignty. Yahia now passed into Africa, raised another army, and being again defeated by Almamun, he returned to Spain, unwilling to renounce all his projects of empire. Aben Hud, however, had other competitors. One Jomail ben Zeyan, an Andalusian chief, rescued Valencia from the Almohades, and proclaimed himself independent. But that independence was to be of short duration; for not only was the usurper threatened by Aben Hud, but by Fernando, who had united the crowns of Leon and Castile, and by king Jayme of Aragon, surnamed the Conqueror, who had long resolved on the subjugation of Valencia. The last named sovereign began his career of victory by reducing the Balearic Isles, which he rescued from the yoke of the Almohades. The empire of these Africans in the Peninsula was now to end.* While king Jayme was threatening Valencia, Aben Hud was acknowledged by Granada, Merida, Seville, and soon after all Andalusia. These disasters hastened the death of Almamun, A. H. 629.†

But fate, as the Mohammedans assert, had not reserved an empire for Aben Hud. No sooner did intelligence arrive of Almamun's death, than Yahia aspired to the sovereignty; and though, as usual, this prince failed in his object,—the son of Almamun being elected in Mauritania, and he himself having received a mortal wound in an attack on Jaen,—Mohammed Abu Abdalla, his nephew, inherited his rights without his ill-fortune. This young prince aspired to the whole of Andalusia, and declared himself the mortal enemy of Aben Hud. The facility with which he reduced several important towns, Jaen

* Nor did it long subsist in Africa. Adris, the last prince of this dynasty, fell A. H. 668, in a battle with the Marini, who triumphantly invaded his dominions. Abu Abdalla.

† The same authorities as before, with the addition of Abu Bakir, *Vestis Berica* (apud Casiri, ii. 60.)

among the number, procured him the favor of his soldiers, who proclaimed him king of that place. Thus Mohammedan Spain obeyed three sovereigns, Jomail ben Zeyan in Valencia, Mohammed in Jaen, and Aben Hud in Murcia, Granada, Cordova, Seville, &c. If Mohammed was the least powerful, he was destined to prove the most fortunate, as he was unquestionably the most able, of the three. In 630, Aben Hud was defeated on the banks of the Guadalete by one of king Fernando's generals. The following year he lost Loxa, Alhama, and the mountain range of Alpujarras, which became the prize of Mohammed; Alonge and Medellin, which were seized by the Portuguese; and Ubeda, which capitulated to Fernando. The year 632 was still more disastrous for him. The important city of Cordova, which in the eyes of the Mohammedans was sacred alike from its magnificent mosque, and from its having so long been the seat of their caliphs, fell into the power of the Castilian king. But the worst was yet to come. Being promised the supremacy over Valencia, if he could force the king of Aragon, who then invested it, to retire, he prepared to embark his troops at Almeria, in aid of Jomail. By the alcaid of that town, at whose table he had been entertained, and

who was secretly attached to Mohammed, he was strangled in his bed (A. H. 634), and the report spread that he had died of apoplexy. Mohammed was immediately proclaimed in Almeria, and the following year (635) in Granada. The same year, too, Valencia capitulated, and the dominions of Aben Hud were divided among the local walis, all about to become successively the prey of the Christians. Murcia, Alicante, Orihuela, Lorca, Alhama, Chinchilla, in the east, were each governed by independent walis; in the west, Seville obeyed the cid Abu Abdalla, son of Yacub Almanzor; Carmona was subject to his nephew, Abul Hassan; Xeres, with the towns of Algarve not yet subdued by the Portuguese, had a governor, who vainly assumed the title of king.

In this deplorable situation of Mohammedan Spain, when the various states were threatened by the Christian princes, and when help from Africa could no longer be expected, the followers of the prophet cast their eyes on Aben Alhamar, who alone was able to secure them in their possessions; nay, who alone could prevent their expulsion from the Peninsula. After the surrender of Valencia, though king Jayme allowed perfect freedom of conscience, and a reasonable portion of liberty, to all who chose to remain, 50,000 Mussulmans bade adieu to the fertile plains of that province, and flocked to the cities which owned the sway of Mohammed. The latter fixed his court in Granada, resolved, if possible, to extend, or at the worst to preserve his new states against the independent walis on the one

hand, and the Christians on the other. Our nation is now called to the only Mohammedan state which survived the wreck of the African empire; to one which, during more than two centuries and a half, withstood the hostile attacks of its Christian neighbors, and which fell only when all Christian Spain became united under one sceptre, and consequently irresistible.*

CHAP. II.

KINGDOM OF GRANADA.

1238—1492.

MOHAMMED BEN ALHAMAR, the founder of a celebrated kingdom, had qualities of a high order. Intrepid in war, ^{A. H. 635.} yet averse to engage in it unless necessity demanded; vigorous in his internal administration, yet mild and conciliating; possessed of great foresight, and therefore seldom surprised by the ordinary chances of human affairs; prudent in his measures, comprehensive in his views, and magnificent in his habits; fond of power, but fonder still of popularity; he was excellently adapted to rule over a people like the Andalusians.

Scarcely had this prince taken possession of his new states, than he prepared for wars which he well saw were inevitable. He repaired the frontier fortresses of his little kingdom, which extended from Algeziras to beyond Almeria on the coast, and inwards as far as Jaen and Huescar; and, to be provided against the worst, he at the same time fortified his capital of Granada. By the constitution of Mohammedan governments, every male subject is a soldier, and every one is taught to regard the defence of the place he inhabits, not only as enjoined by patriotism, but as rendered imperative by religion. But

* Abu Bakir, *Vestis Serica* (apud Casiri, ii. 60.). Abu Abdalla, *Vestis Aca Picta* (apud eundem, ii. 223.), *necnon Splendor Plenilunii* (apud eundem, ii. 260, &c.). Rodericus Toletanus, *Rerum in Hispania Gestarum*, lib. viii. ix. (apud Schottum, *Hisp. Illus.* tom. ii.). *Chronicon Lusitanum* (apud Flores, *España Sagrada*, xiv. 416, &c.). *Annales Compostellani* (apud eundem, xliii. 324.). *Chronicon de Cardena*, p. 378, &c. (in eodem tomo). *Anales Toledanos*, i. (in eodem tomo, p. 339.). *Anales Toledanos*, ii. (p. 419. in eodem tomo.). *Chronicon Cerratense* (apud eundem, ii. 213.). *Lucas Tudensis, Chronicon Mundi* (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. ii.). Diego Lopez de Cortegana, *Cronica del Santo Rey Fernando Tercero de este nombre, qui ganó á Sevilla y toda el Andaluzia*, p. 20—47. Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* tom. i. (in reg. Don Jayme el Conquistador). D'Herbelot, *Bibliothèque Orientale*, art. Mamoun. Condé, by Marles, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. iii. 1—38.

In the wars of this period, the martial archbishop of Toledo sometimes took a prominent part. In A. D. 1233, he made a successful irruption into Andalusia, recovering several settlements which he himself had founded, from the hands of the infidels.

Aben Alhamar, not content with this advantage, created a regular army, which he paid from his own revenues, and with which he filled his strong places. He had sagacity enough to know that the soldier maintained by the sovereign is more the servant of that sovereign than of the country. Besides this pay, each soldier was put in possession of land, (chiefly on the frontiers, and therefore those frontiers were sure to be well defended) sufficient to support himself, his horse, and his family, with the more urgent necessities of life. Hence every soldier was a patriot; for his individual interest was involved in that of the country. Patriotism cannot long exist with want, or even with a precarious subsistence.

A. H. 637. The preparations of Aben Alhamar were amply justified by the sequel of events. The marriage of St. Fernando with a French princess had for a whole year suspended hostilities in that quarter; but now, when the marriage fêtes were concluded, that saintly monarch reappeared in armor. In A. H. 637, and the following year, his generals reduced Arjona and some other fortresses, while the king of Aragon seized on Villena and Xativa. But Fernando meditated a more important conquest. Well knowing the distracted state of Murcia, he sent his son Alfonso to reduce one by one the walis of that province. This expedition was attended with complete success, the wali of Lorca alone, Azis ben Abdelmelic, refusing to acknowledge the supremacy of Castile; the rest became the vassals of Fernando. Azis, however, soon afterwards lost his life in opposing Jomail, the deposed sovereign of Valencia, who longed to have at least a shadow of royalty, and who usurped the sovereignty of Lorca and Carthagera. The following year (641) the usurper was dispossessed of these places by the victorious Alfonso, and forced to retire into private life.

But these conquests, important as they were, were soon to be eclipsed by others. Aben Alhamar had ventured to oppose the irruptions of prince Alfonso into his states, and he was therefore marked out for the vengeance of the Castilians. The city of Jaen, the bulwark of the new kingdom, was invested by Fernando in person. While prosecuting the siege with a constancy which showed that he was resolute on bringing it to a successful issue, detachments from his army reduced Illora and Alcala Real. The Moorish king now tried whether better fortune might not attend him in open campaign; but his signal defeat by the Castilian monarch (A. H. 643) taught him to respect the valor of his enemies. Still the place held out during the whole of the succeeding winter, when Fernando again joined the besieging army, and declared that he would not move from the walls until it owned his sway. Aben Alhamar perceived that its fall was inevitable, and he had but too much

reason to dread that the catastrophe would be followed by the siege of his capital. He could not throw the least reinforcement into Jaen; he dared not again try the event of a battle, for he felt that to do this would be destruction. In this critical situation he adopted a resolution extraordinary indeed, but conformable with the chivalry of his character. Without acquainting Fernando with his intention, he proceeded *alone* to the camp of that monarch, obtained an interview with him, announced his name, offered to become the vassal of the Castilian crown, and kissed the king's hand in token of homage.* Fernando was not to be outdone in generosity: he embraced Mohammed, whom he called his dear friend and ally, and whom he thanked for so signal a proof of confidence. The two kings soon agreed as to their immediate policy. Jaen was surrendered, an annual tribute was promised, with a certain number of horsemen whenever the king of Castile went to war: the king of Granada, too, like other feudatories, was to attend the cortes of the Christian kingdom. In return, Aben Alhamar was guaranteed in his remaining possessions, and treated with the highest distinction by his new friend. This proceeding of the Moorish king was as necessary as it was painful. Had he delayed it much longer, his infant state would have been overrun by the powerful Castilian, and he himself either driven into exile, or condemned to a private station.†

But if Aben Alhamar had thus succeeded in purchasing peace, it was a sacrifice much greater than that A. H. 643. even of personal independence. The Mussulmans were his brethren; yet in his quality of vassal to king Fernando, he was compelled to draw the sword against them, and thereby to increase the power of the most formidable enemy of his faith. Not many months had elapsed after his treaty with the Chris-

* The Christian writers do away with the chivalry of this proceeding, by making the king of Granada first send a Moor to the camp of Fernando, who promised whatever was required: they add, that, in faith of these promises, Mohammed hastened to do homage. This is the more probable, perhaps the true, relation; but we follow Condé, always supposing that Mariés has correctly interpreted him. Again we must lament that the original work of Condé is not in our hands.

† Abu Bakir, Vestis Serica, necnon Abu Abdalla, Splendor Plenilunii (apud Casiri, Bibl. Arab.-Hispan. ii. 64. 264.). Rodericus Toletanus, Rerum in Hispania Gestarum, lib. ix. cap. 1.—12. (apud Schottum, Hispania Illustrata, tom. ii.) Annales Compostellani, p. 324. (apud Florez, España Sagrada, tom. xxiii.) Chronicon de Cardena, p. 378. (in eodem tomo) Annales Toledanos, ii. (in eodem tomo, p. 408, &c.) Annales Toledanos, iii. p. 412. (in eodem tomo). Diego Lopez, Cronica del Santo Rey Fernando III. passim. Zurita, Anales de Aragon (in regno Don Jayme el Conquistador). Condé, by Mariés, Histoire de la Domination, &c. iii. 38—56. This is the last time we have to quote the archbishop of Toledo, who died in A. D. 625, or A. D. 1247. His history of the events of his times is invaluable.

The epitaph of Rodrigo is rude, and somewhat quaint:—

“Mater Navarra, nutrix Castella, schola Parisiis,
Sedes Toletum, hortu mausoleum, requies cœlum.”

tians, before he was summoned, according to its tenor, to march to the camp of Fernando with a body of 500 horse, to aid in the meditated conquest of Seville. He obeyed the summons; and on his reaching the camp of his liege lord, who was waiting for him, the campaign opened. After reducing several strong places, the important city of Carmona was invested. It was at first defended by its wali Abul Hassan, nephew of the cid Abu Abdalla, prince of the Almohades, who, as observed at the close of the last chapter, reigned at Seville. But Abul Hassan, perceiving that the ulterior object of Fernando was Seville itself, left the defence of Carmona to one of his lieutenants, and hastened to the assistance of his aged uncle. The inhabitants, who had agreed to surrender, if not relieved within six months, in consternation at the ruin of their fields, and the other increasing horrors of the war, at length constrained their alcade to send their submission to the Castilian king, who took possession of the place in A. H. 643.* All the fortresses on both banks of the Guadalquivir, from Jaen to the gates of Seville, had either already submitted to the Christians, or were now subdued by them. For these successes, Fernando was not a little indebted to his royal ally, who, seeing that resistance was useless, prevailed on the governors to surrender their places, and procured for them terms more favorable than they would otherwise have obtained. In short, while the Moorish king adhered with reluctant but honorable fidelity to his feudal superior, he omitted no opportunity of interceding for his brethren. The standard of Castile now floated on all the great cities of Andalusia, except Seville, the reduction of which was the next great enterprise of the victor.

The Christian king had no sooner invested this great city than he perceived that so long as the mouth of the Guadalquivir was open to receive reinforcements from Africa, there was no hope of its reduction. Having caused a fleet to be constructed in the ports of Biscay, he placed it under the command of his admiral, Raymond Boniface, who conducted it towards the port of St. Lucar, at the mouth of that river. The Moorish fleet from Africa occupied the station: the Christian admiral triumphed over the Mohammedans, and advanced up towards Seville, which was now invested by sea and land. The consternation of the besieged was great; but, in the hope that on the approach of winter the Christians would retire, they persevered in their heroic resistance. But in this hope they were de-

* There is considerable variation in the dates, and some even in the events, of this war, as given by Christians and Mohammedans. Now that Rodrigo has ceased to guide us, we place more dependence on the Arabian authorities of Condé than on Alonse el Sabio.

ceived; the besiegers had resolved to remain under their tents until the place capitulated. For some time, too, the city received supplies by land from its Mohammedan neighbors of the Algarves; but of this advantage it was at length deprived by the grand master of Santiago, who obtained a decisive victory over an advancing army of reinforcement, and thenceforward prevented the possibility of supplies being thrown into the place. Finally, after the siege had continued fifteen months, when Fernando had reinforced his army from all parts of his dominions, when the suburbs Triana and Alfarache were occupied by his troops, and the besieged consequently cut off from all communication without their walls, and when that worst of enemies, famine, began to rage among them, they consented to capitulate. The conditions, which were signed November 23d, 1248, were alike honorable to them and to the victor. It was agreed that the inhabitants were at liberty either to leave the place or to remain in it; that if they chose the former, they should take whatever property they could carry away, and be furnished with the means of transport to Africa, or Granada, or wherever else they wished to reside; that, if they chose the latter, they should be subject to the same tribute as they had paid to their own princes. Abul Hassan, the brave defender of the place, was offered lands and riches if he would reside either in Seville, or any other city dependent on Castile. But the prince was too proud to owe any obligation to the Christians: he embarked accordingly for Africa, accompanied by some thousands of the inhabitants. If, as we are credibly informed, 300,000 Arabs and Moors left the city prior to its entrance by the conqueror, we may conclude that very few chose to remain under the Christian domination. One portion of the fugitives settled in the Algarves, and in the neighboring towns, especially Xeres; but the greater number, unwilling like them to forsake the fertile plains of the Peninsula, hastened to abide with their brethren in the new kingdom of Granada. In the month of December, Fernando made a magnificent entry into this ancient and important city. He was escorted to the grand mosque, which the Christian prelates in his suite immediately purified, and which the successor of Rodrigo in the see of Toledo converted to a purer worship by the celebration of a pontifical high mass.

During this memorable siege, don Jayme of Aragon was no less eager than his brother of Castile to extend his conquests. He finished the subjugation of the kingdom of Valencia by the reduction of Xativa, which had revolted, and some other fortresses. Whether weary of his domination, which, however, does not appear to have been galling, or from hatred to Christianity, or from a wish to support, by their valor, the new kingdom of the

south, most of the Mohammedans of Valencia bade an everlasting adieu to the delicious plains of that province, and, like their brethren of Seville, sought the hospitality of Aben Alhamar. In about two years afterwards, the remaining portion were expelled, after a troublesome but fruitless resistance, by the bigoted conqueror. Of these, many sought refuge in Murcia, under the less intolerant sway of the Castilians; but most joined their brethren of Granada. The Moorish king, who was well acquainted with the fact, that the more numerous and contented the population, the safer the state, ordered them to be well received in whatever part of his dominion they chose to settle, and to be exempted from taxes for several years to come.*

On the capitulation of Seville, Aben Alhamar took leave of his liege lord, and returned to Granada; his heart filled with sorrow at the unfortunate situation of Mohammedan Spain, especially when he considered that he himself had been an instrument, however unwilling, to bring about the catastrophe. Nor were his spirits much raised when he reflected on the increased strength of the Christian princes, their boundless ambition, and the certainty that they would not rest long satisfied with their present advantages. As he alone remained of all the Moslem power, so he alone would be exposed to the hostility of the enemy. But in the worst conditions man is seldom deserted by hope. It was not to be expected that Castile would always have princes so vigilant and able as Fernando; under the successors of that monarch the integrity of Granada might be preserved,—perhaps her territories extended. But the Moorish king was too wise a man to place his chief dependence on the future. Knowing that the best—indeed the only—foundation of thrones is the prosperity of the people, he applied himself, with extraordinary zeal, to the promotion of that object. Hospitals for the sick; houses of entertainment for travellers, and of refuge for the poor; schools for children, and colleges for youth; aqueducts for supplying the towns with the most necessary of the elements, and canals for fertilizing the ground; baths, fountains, warehouses where the produce of his own and other climes could be safely deposited, and markets where that produce could be distributed to the people at a fixed reasonable price; the encouragement given to agriculture, commerce, and the useful arts of life; a mild firmness in the administration;

* Abu Bakir, *Vestis Serica*, passim. Abu Abdalla, *Splendor Plenitunii* (apud Casiri, ii. 260—265.). Diego Lopez, *Cronica del Santo Rey Don Fernando Tercero*, passim. *Anales Toledanos*, ii. p. 400. apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, tom. xxiii.). *Anales Toledanos* iii. (in eodem tomo, p. 412.). *Chronicon Cerratense* (apud eundem, ii. 213.). Zurita, *Anales de Aragon*, tom. i. cap. 44.; with a multitude of other Christian writers. Condé, by Marlés, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. iii. 56—65.

an invariable adherence to justice in all disputes between his subjects; a readiness on all occasions to hear and to redress complaints; frequent audiences, to which the high and low, rich and poor, Mussulman and Christian, were indiscriminately admitted, and from which few, if any, had ever reason to depart dissatisfied;—such were some of the blessings which this able prince bestowed on his country. Nor was he less attentive to the defence than to the prosperity of the people. Besides the organization and improved discipline of the army, the kingdom was indebted to him for the erection of numerous fortresses both on the frontiers and in the interior. It is true that, in aid of these extensive improvements, the imposition of new burdens on the people was inevitable; but they were borne without murmuring, since every one saw that the king was liberal of the national resources, not for his own sake, but for the good of the community.

So long as Fernando lived, a good understanding subsisted between him and Aben Alhamar. Though the former subdued most of the towns between Seville and the Algarves,—though he even equipped a fleet to make war on the sovereign of Morocco, and obtained a signal triumph over the Moorish ships,—he did not attempt to disturb his vassal in the new kingdom. But some time after the accession of Alfonso el Sabio, in A. H. 650 (A. D. 1252), this good understanding gave way to open hostility. This change in the relations of the two kings was thus occasioned: On the accession of Alfonso, the Mohammedans of that portion of Algarve belonging to Castile openly revolted. To crush this incipient commotion, he summoned his vassals, and, among others, the king of Granada, who obeyed the summons. Xeres, Arcos, Sidonia, Lebrija, &c. were successively reduced to obedience, chiefly through the gallantry of prince Enrique, brother of Alfonso. But that prince having, for some cause not very well known,* incurred the displeasure of the king, endeavored to fortify himself by alliance,—perhaps even to usurp that brother's dignity. He prevailed on the discontented wali of Niebla to revolt, seized on Arcos and Lebrija, until, being defeated by a Castilian general who had orders to secure his person, he found it high time to procure some place of refuge from his brother's vengeance. He applied to the king of Aragon, but in vain. Aben Alhamar, to whom his next application was addressed, advised him not to remain in any city of Spain, but pass over to Africa, where he would meet with a reception due to his rank. Don Enrique followed the advice; being furnished with

* An amour, in which the two brothers were rivals, is generally assigned as the cause.

the powerful recommendations of the Moorish king, he proceeded to Tunis, where he remained many years. His departure left the wali of Niebla exposed to the fury of Alfonso. That city was immediately invested; and though its defence* was long and vigorous, in the end both it and the other towns which had rebelled were compelled to capitulate. This

A. H. 655. country was the last refuge of the Almohades, who struggled hard to preserve something like a shadow of government.

But though subdued, they still cherished the hope of independence; not from any efforts they could make, but from the aid of Mohammed Alhamar. Hearing that the Moorish king was on a tour of inspection over his chief fortresses, they deputed to him a few of their chiefs, who offered to proclaim him their ruler if he would aid them to break their chains. At the same time Murcia was persuaded to send a similar deputation. As he did not wish to decide in an affair of such moment without the advice of his council, he returned to his capital, and laid the subject before them. All voted for war with Castile; both because it was their duty to assist their suffering brethren, and their interest to unite in humbling the power of Alfonso. But Mohammed was, at first, averse to an open war: he promised, however, that, if a simultaneous rising took place, so far from aiding the Christians, he would take part with his brethren. This was enough for the deputies: on the same day, and at the

659. same hour, the people rose (A. H. 659) at Murcia, Lorca, Mula, Xeres, Lebrija, Arcos, &c., assailed and massacred the Christians, and proclaimed Aben Alhamar. The walis of Tarifa and Algeziras, two of his subjects, marched to assist the rebels. Alfonso, however, speedily raised troops to crush the rebellion; and, as usual, demanded the stipulated contingent from the king of Granada. The latter replied, that, so far from suffering him to march against his co-religionists, his people would scarcely permit him to remain neuter in the impending contest. The Castilian, who saw through the policy of his vassal, ordered his generals to treat the people of Granada as enemies; while Aben Alhamar himself threw off the mask, and made an irruption into the territories of Castile.†

66. However combined the plan of the Mohammedans, they were not likely to prevail over their more powerful neighbors. In A. H. 660, the kings of Castile and Grana-

* If the Mohammedan accounts are correct, *artillery* was used in defence of Niebla. The invention of gunpowder may probably be referred to a much more ancient period than the one assigned. It is much to be wished that more light were thrown on this dark but interesting subject.

† Authorities.—the fragments of Casiri, the *Chronicles of San Fernando* and *Alfonso el Sabio*, the *Annals of Zurita*, and *Condé by Mariés*. *Mariés* is not to be followed in the *Christian* portion of his history: he favors the infidels at the expense of the Spaniards, and is sometimes either dishonest or culpably careless.

da met near Alcada Real, when the latter was signally defeated. At the same time a powerful diversion was made on the side of Murcia by the king of Aragon, who was persuaded to undertake the re-subjugation of that province for the husband of his daughter.* And after the victory over Mohammed, the army of Alfonso proceeded to chastise the insurgents of Algarve. In all these places success shone on the banners of the Christians. The revolt of three of his most powerful walis prevented Mohammed from succoring either the Murcians or the rebels of the West. Not only were the latter, after a few months' siege, compelled to surrender the towns they defended, but they were for ever expelled the country, and forced to seek new habitations amidst the mountains of Granada. (Though a portion of this country was thus reconquered by Alfonso, the Portuguese laid claim to it; and the whole of Algarve was soon afterwards ceded to that people, on condition of their furnishing him with fifty men-at-arms whenever he went to war, and of their recognizing his right to another disputed territory.—that extending from Alconcer to Aracene, between the Guadiana and the Guadalquivir.) In the east, the king of Aragon triumphed with equal glory. He subdued the whole of Murcia, of which Alfonso marched to take possession. In consternation at these disasters, Aben Alhamar sued for peace, which the Castilian king readily granted, on conditions even more favorable than the former had a right to expect. Instead of troops he was allowed to pay an annual tribute to his liege lord; and he was not bound to appear at any assembly of the cortes, unless that assembly were held in a city of Andalusia. Murcia was thenceforward to be governed by a Mohammedan prince, nominated by the sovereign of Castile; and the walis, who had thrown off their allegiance to Mohammed, were to be urged to return to their duty by Alfonso; in the same manner the king of Granada engaged to persuade the Murcians to become submissive subjects. The lenity of these conditions, which were signed by the kings in A. H. 664 (A. D. 1266), can only be explained by the apprehension felt by the victor lest Mohammed should again introduce the Africans into Spain. In fact, such an apprehension was reasonable; for the latter had already solicited and even obtained the promise of troops from the king of Morocco.

But this peace was short in its duration. Alfonso found so obvious an interest in fomenting the continued rebellion of the walis, that he persuaded them still to hold

* Unlike the Christians, the Arabian writers will not allow don Jayme to have been very disinterested in supporting his son-in-law Alfonso. They contend that he wished to keep Murcia for himself. The alliance of Emanuel, for whom the fief was intended, with another daughter of don Jayme, restored the harmony of the two crowns.

out, and even required not only that Mohammed should not reduce them by force, but that he should recognize them as independent governors. The indignation of the Moorish king was unbounded, and he resolved to employ the greater rigor against the daring rebels. Accident favored his design. The vain ambition of Alfonso, who aspired to the imperial crown of Germany, and who, for that unattainable object, had lavished immense sums, had greatly disgusted his people. Taking advantage of this general sentiment, a few factious nobles, at the head of whom was don Felipe, the king's brother, revolted against him, and, under the pretext of the public good, each aspired to his own individual interests. In their guilty ambition they did not scruple to apply to Moorish as well as Christian princes, to Aben Yusef of Morocco, and Aben Alhamar of Granada, as well as to the king of Navarre, to bring the scourge of invasion on their country, and of profiting by the general disorder. These rebels having been summoned to lay down their arms by an assembly of the states at Burgos, under penalty of being severely punished, preferred exile to obedience, and sought refuge with the king of Granada. They even aided him in the attempt to reduce the revolted walis, who still defied the power of Aben Alhamar. By a strange inconsistency in the human character, these rebels were the advocates of legitimate order, and at the same time assisted in punishing men for the very crime they themselves committed. But whatever advantage Mohammed might gain over the united walis, he could not reduce them by his regular army, and he was unwilling to employ new levies in this social war,—of opposing brethren to brethren, and bringing odium on his administration. He again applied for aid to Aben Yusef, who promised soon to land in Andalusia, to assist him in extirpating his domestic foes,—a promise, however, which was not fulfilled. Thus there was a prospect of another African invasion,—one which might have proved as fatal to Mohammed and the Christians as that of the Almoravides. The intelligence of this threatened calamity was brought to Spain by the infante don Enrique, who, tired of his situation at the court of Tunis, and not without just suspicion that his life was in danger,* returned to his brother. He severely censured the policy of Alfonso, who, by protecting the rebellious walis, was the indirect cause of this alliance between the two Mohammedan kings. Alarmed at his situation, the Christian monarch empowered his brother to negotiate, not only with his exiled subjects, whom he now wished to return, but with Aben Alhamar, his faithless vassal. Accordingly ne-

* Two lions were one day let loose on him, no doubt purposely, as he walked in the court-yard of his host; but he drew his sword, and neither dared to spring on him. He naturally wished to escape from such hospitality.

gotiations commenced: the insurgent walis, aware of the fact, resolved to strike a final blow before either their conclusion, or the arrival of the Africans.

In A. H. 671, the three walis, at the head of a considerable army, entered the plains of Granada. Incensed at this insulting audacity, Mohammed ordered his troops to assemble, and placing himself at their head, issued from the gates. It was observed, however, that the foremost horseman, in passing under the archway, neglected to lower his lance, which was shattered in his hands; and the accident was considered ominous. The evening of that day the king was seized by a sickness so severe, that he was laid on a litter and conveyed back towards the capital. But that capital he was to see no more. So rapidly did the violence of his disorder increase, that a pavilion was erected for him on the plain, where in a few hours he expired. Don Felipe and the Castilian nobles surrounded his dying couch, and showed him proofs of sincere regard.*

MOMAMMED II. followed successfully in the steps of his able father. On his accession he made no change in the ministry: he had no creatures of his own to provide for by displacing the faithful servants of the late reign. His conduct in this respect procured him the esteem of the nation,—of all but a few ambitious and fastidious men, who from disappointment first murmured, and next joined the rebels of Malaga. To reduce these daring outlaws,—for such they literally were,—who had occasioned so much trouble to his father, was the first object of the new king. But though, with the aid of his Christian friends, don Felipe and the other nobles who had fled from the presence of Alfonso, he utterly defeated them near Antequera, they had only to throw themselves within the impregnable fortifications of Malaga, and set him at defiance.

After this victory, don Felipe being urgently invited to

* Abu Abdalla, *Vestis Acu Picta, Splendor Plenilunii* (apud Casiri, ii. 260—265.). Conde, by Marlés, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. iii. 80—86. *Cronica de Cardena*, p. 379. (apud Florez, *Espana Sagrada*, tom. xxlii.). Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* (in regno Don Jayme el Conquistador.).

The epitaph of Mohammed, as given by Abu Abdalla (Casiri's translation), may amuse the learned reader:—

Hic jacet magnus et excelsus rex Mahometanorum, gloria hominum, pulchritudo noctium, dierumque decus, sum gentis auxilium, ros misericordie, dominus et princeps populi, legis lux atque defensor, veritatis gladius, hominum rector, leo belli, hostium excidium rerum, columen, confinium propagator, exercituum debellator, tyrannorum et infidelium domitor, fidelium imperator, dux populi, delecti et pii fidei tutamen et regum honos: qui bella Dei gessit, ejusque ope hostes vicit, ABU ABDALLA, viz. MUHAMMED BEN YUSSEF BEN NASSER ALANSARACUS, quem Deus in summo honorum gradu inter prophetas justos, martyres sanctosque collocet! Hic in lucem editus, felicem Deo annuente, sortem nactus est A. H. 591, obiit vero feriâ 6 horis pomeridianis die 29 Gemadi posterioris, anno 671. Laus Deo, cujus imperium perpetuum, regnumque æternum, ævum pereune. Non est Deus præter Deum misericordem simulque pium.

return to his brother's court, and even to use his influence with the king of Granada for securing the blessings of peace to both states, Mohammed not only consented to renew the alliance, but even resolved to accompany his friends to the presence of Alfonso. His reception by the Christian monarch, by whose hand he was even knighted, was highly distinguished. As his manners were graceful, his study to please assiduous, and his knowledge of the Castilian language considerable, he became a favorite in Seville. But he was soon dissatisfied with his situation. One day when he visited the queen, who took great pleasure in his conversation, she artfully observed that she had a favor to beg from him, and he as courteously replied it should be granted. He had no suspicion that a lady would think of politics on a visit of ceremony; and his surprise could only be equalled by his mortification, when he learned that she wished him to agree on a new truce with the revolted walis. But his word was given, and he could not retract it. He soon afterwards returned to Granada, now fully convinced that the rebellion was continued wholly by the arts of Alfonso. However, he waited patiently until the expiration of the term agreed on; and, as the rebels showed no intention of submitting, he again applied to Aben Yusef, of Morocco, promising to put that prince in possession of Algeziras and Tarifa, on the condition that the aid solicited were prompt and considerable.

673. So long as Aben Yusef was solicited to arm only in defence of Islamism, he showed little readiness to fulfil his promise; but the moment his imprudent ally offered to place in his hands the keys of Andalusia, he dispatched 17,000 Africans to occupy the two fortresses; and early in A. H. 674 he himself landed with another army. The terrified walis now lost no time in submitting to their lawful sovereign, who was easily induced to forgive the past. But the preparations of the two allies were not to be lost; it was accordingly determined that both should attack the Christians; that while Aben Yusef laid siege to Eciija and Seville, Mohammed should march on Cordova.* Though the governor of Eciija, Nuno de Lara, had not one third the number of soldiers of Aben Yusef, he accepted the challenge of the African. The Christians fought with desperate valor, but in the end they fell, Nuno himself being left dead on the field. The head was sent by the victor to the king of Granada, who could not refrain from tears on beholding it; for Nuno had long resided with don Felipe at the court of Granada. "Unfortunate friend!"

* We must again observe, that in the wars of this period the Christian historians differ—on some occasions widely—from the authorities of Conde.

sorrowfully exclaimed the king, "thou wast deserving a better fate!" With a feeling honorable to his heart, he caused the head to be embalmed, to be inclosed in a silver box, and conveyed to the relatives of the deceased. This success, however, brought no advantage to the allies. Though Yussef invested Ecija, he was soon forced by the inhabitants to raise the siege. He next ravaged the country as far as the gates of Cordova, while Mohammed defeated the infante don Sancho, archbishop of Toledo, who rashly led a handful of men against the invaders. The infante was taken prisoner; he was claimed by the Africans who served in the army of Mohammed; the troops of Granada refused to relinquish their prize; a quarrel arose which would have ended in a battle, had not a Moorish horseman ridden between the contending parties, and thrust his lance through the heart of Sancho, exclaiming at the same time, "Allah forbid that so many brave men should cut one another's throats for the sake of a dog!" To end the dispute, the Africans took the head, the Andalusians the right hand, of the prince. The day following, when don Lope Diaz advanced to effect a junction with the infante, and perceived the cross in the hands of the infidels, he furiously assailed the Moors. The combat continued until nightfall; and though victory declared for neither, the loss was more severe on the part of the invaders, who retired from the field. At this critical moment the Christians were disconcerted by the death of the infante don Fernando, whom Alfonso had left regent of the kingdom during his absence in the fruitless quest of the imperial crown. But don Sancho, brother of the deceased regent, and second son of Alfonso, placed himself at the head of the levies which had been raised, and advanced against the king of Morocco, whom he forced to retreat. To prevent that prince from receiving any supplies from Africa, he caused a fleet to ride in the channel, and he thereby cut off all communication between the Andalusians and that continent. In consternation at this vigorous blow, Aben Yussef, who had retired to Algeziras, sued for peace, which Sancho readily granted, in the view of turning the whole of his forces against Mohammed. At the same time a powerful diversion was made in his favor by the king of Aragon. Mohammed was now in a critical position. Deserted by his ally, to whom he had surrendered two important towns; menaced by the united forces of Aragon and Castile; and again distracted by the revolt of the walis of Malaga and Guadix, who renewed their alliance with don Sancho, he also sued for peace. After some difficulty, he obtained it; but for his success in this respect he was indebted to the policy of Sancho, who, in aspiring to the succession, and consequently to the exclusion of his

A. H.
675.

676.

elder brother's children, wished to have no foreign enemies to combat.*

The short interval of tranquillity which followed permitted Mohammed to carry on his great design of embellishing his capital. The palace of the Alhambra which his father commenced, and which by the labor of succeeding kings was destined to become the wonder of Spain, he greatly augmented and improved.† His encouragement, too, of literature and the arts, the reception which he afforded to the learned of every country, his magnificent taste and profuse liberality, rendered Granada the favorite abode of science and the muses, the most cultivated city not of Spain only, but of Europe.‡

But from these peaceful and enlightened pursuits, Mohammed was soon summoned to the bustling and scarcely less congenial ones of war. Alfonso, having been induced by pope Nicholas to recommence hostilities with the Moslems, laid siege to Algeziras. His ill success before that place, owing chiefly to an epidemic disorder which raged among his troops, and compelled him to raise the siege, and partly to the destruction of his fleet by the king of Morocco, encouraged Mohammed to invade the country round Cordova. Having obtained a truce from Aben Yusef, Alfonso prepared to fall on this new enemy; but a complaint in his eyes arrested his advance at Alcala Real, and the command was devolved on don Sancho. During the campaign of 679, the advantage rested with the Moorish king, owing chiefly to his superior dexterity; but in the following year, the prince, at the head of 50,000 men, forced the Moslems to retire, and encamped within sight of Granada. No intention, indeed, existed of making an assault on the formidable ramparts of that city; but to brave the enemy in their strongest hold was no mean triumph to the Christians. This, however, was the only advantage derived from this display of force. Through either the application for peace by Mohammed, or the ambition of Sancho, who was bent on securing the succession to the Christian throne, the infant withdrew the army from the territories of Granada, and returned to Cordova. The cortes of Valladolid had just declared Alfonso deprived of the regal dignity in favor of Sancho; and

* The same authorities.

† As the description of Granada, especially of the fairy palace of the Alhambra, with its baths, fountains, gardens, &c. would require a whole chapter, and is, besides, to be found in works of easy access, it cannot be given here. The narrow limits assigned us for the history of Mohammedan Spain hurries us towards a conclusion. We regret this the less, as an author whose pen he must be daring, indeed, who would presume to rival (Dr. Southey), is now occupied with this interesting subject for the *Cabinet Cyclopædia*.

‡ The last chapter of the present book will, among other matters, treat on the Mohammedan literature, &c. of Spain.

the great towns of the kingdom, with the exception of Seville and of Badajoz, where Alfonso then was, recognized the new sovereign. Of the Christian princes to whom the unfortunate father applied for aid against an undutiful son, none showed much disposition to satisfy him. Not so the king of ^{A. H.} Morocco, who was then at Algeziras, and who readily ^{681.} armed in behalf of an injured however weak parent. On the other hand, Mohammed espoused the interests of Sancho; so that in this war Moor was to be banded against Moor, and Christian against Christian. But the war turned to the advantage of the rebellious son, first, because Aben Yusef refused to fight against the Moors; and, secondly, because the followers of Alfonso began to suspect,—perhaps they had ground for the suspicion,—that the African himself aimed at the possession of Andalusia. However this be, they forsook their Moorish ally, and returned to their king, whose distrust and indignation they fomented. The Christian wrote a reproachful letter to Aben Yusef, who, whether from the pride of offended innocence, or from a consciousness of guilt, retired to Algeziras, leaving the aged king to struggle alone against the unnatural coalition. But what temporal arms could not effect was obtained by the threatened thunders of the church. Pope Martin V. menaced Sancho and his partisans with excommunication, and the whole realm with an interdict, in case he persevered in his rebellion. The terrified Sancho, deserted by most of his supporters, now endeavored to obtain his father's forgiveness. At this time (A. H. 683) Alfonso died, and don Sancho became king.

The subsequent proceedings of Aben Yusef seem to confirm the suspicions of Alfonso. Finding that he could ⁶⁸⁴ obtain no increase of territory from the Christians, either ^{to} by open force or secret plotting, he turned his political ^{693.} roguery against Mohammed. He prevailed on the revolted walis to acknowledge *him* as the lawful sovereign of their governments; and ere long he obtained an entire cession of Malaga, the chief place of the rebels. He did not, however, long enjoy his usurpation; but his son, Abu Yacub, visited that important city to receive the homage of the inhabitants. Mohammed was no little concerned at its loss: he despaired of recovering it by force; but some years afterwards (A. H. 690) he corrupted the governor, and, by secretly introducing his troops, gained possession of it. Knowing that Abu Yacub would thirst for revenge, he concluded an alliance offensive and defensive with don Sancho. The king of Morocco fitted out a powerful armament, which was intercepted and almost annihilated by the fleet of Sancho, who next reduced Tarifa. Soon afterwards, Mohammed, who was induced by the infante don Juan

to seek a pretext for war with the Castilian king, demanded this fortress, on the ground that it had been occupied by Aben Yussef; and on the indignant refusal of the other, war accordingly recommenced. It afforded as little advantage as honor to Mohammed, whose fortresses of Quesada, Alcaudete, &c. were rapidly reduced by Sancho; nor would the successes of the Castilian have stopped here, had not death arrested him in his career.

The remaining portion of Mohammed's reign offers little to occupy our notice. In A. H. 695, availing himself of the troubles consequent on the death of Sancho, —and it was only during such troubles that the Moslems could contend with their more powerful neighbors,—he recovered the two last conquests of Sancho, and soon afterwards Algeziras, from the king of Morocco. He died the eighth day of the moon Shafan, A. H. 701.*

MOHAMMED III., ABU ABDALLA, had many of the talents, without the good fortune, of his father. In his reign began the intestine disorders, which ended not until the sceptre of Granada was transferred from the dynasty of the Beni Nassir to the sovereigns of Aragon and Castile.

From the commencement of his reign, Mohammed was distinguished for an application to public business to which would have done honor to any sovereign, and was wonderful in a Mussulman. Not only the whole of the day, but a considerable portion of the night, was devoted to the duties of his new station, until both his own health and that of his ministers were broken by the intensity of the labor. But this zeal for the good of his people procured him neither their gratitude nor their respect. Their chief characteristic was inconstancy: the laxity of the royal sway—a laxity proceeding from the mild disposition of the present and preceding prince—emboldened them in their insolence. Abul Hegiag, the wali of Guadix, refused to do homage; the king blockaded the place, but without effect. The revolt of Almeria, occasioned by the intrigues of the king of Aragon, next distracted his attention. These disasters were for a moment balanced by the conquest of Ceuta, effected by his brother; but in the sequel the new conquest, with the fortress of Gibraltar, fell into the power of the Christians. Algeziras, too, would have submitted to the king of Castile,—now Fernando IV.,—had not the forbearance of that prince been purchased

* Abu Abdalla, Vestis Acu Picta, seu Regum Marinorum Series (apud Casiri, ii. 233—236); necnon Splendor Plenilunii (apud eundem, ii. 268—271.). *Anales Toledanos*, iii. (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, tom. xxiii. p. 418.). Zurita, *Anales de Aragon*, (in regnis Don Pedro, Don Alonso III. et Don Jayme II. tom. i.). Condé, by Mariés, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. iii. 119—142.

by the restoration of Quesada, Guadros, and Bedmar, and by 5000 pistoles in gold. He was preparing to purchase in a similar manner the retreat of don Jayme of Aragon, who had closely invested Almeria, and who defeated his army, when he was recalled to his capital by a misfortune still heavier—a conspiracy to dethrone him.

Mohammed hoped that his return to Granada would overawe the factious: it only made them openly break out. The populace, many of whom were gained by the money of the chief conspirators, surrounded his palace, exclaiming, "Long live Nassir Abul Geiox!"—the name of his brother. At the same time, another division of the mob proceeded to the house of his hagib, Abu Abdalla, which, as may be naturally expected, they plundered of every thing valuable, except the library: this they committed to the flames. The minister, however, was not here, but in the king's palace. To the palace the wretches accordingly repaired; and as no adequate force was brought to restrain them, they massacred the sentinels, penetrated into the royal apartments, and cut the virtuous hagib in pieces before the eyes of the king. They next plundered the royal residence; and at length concluded by ordering the mild, weak monarch to resign his throne. Mohammed obeyed. Having made a solemn act of renunciation, he retired to Almuñecar, his appointed residence; and his brother was declared king.

But NASSIR soon found that the same acts which had occasioned his elevation might annoy, and ultimately hurl him from his guilty eminence. The commencement of his reign, indeed, seemed propitious. The siege of Almeria was raised; not so much, however, through the valor of the Mohammedans, as through the disturbances which demanded the king of Aragon's presence in Catalonia. But this fallacious calm was succeeded by the tempest of civil strife. Ismail ben Ferag, surnamed Abul Walid, a prince of the same family, had long aspired to the crown. As he could have no other hope of attaining his object than through the favor of the mob, which is everywhere inclined to revolt, and characteristically so in Mohammedan countries, he had endeavored to acquire popularity partly by his winning manners, and partly by the wealth which he profusely distributed. He who is so base as to flatter, or so unprincipled as to seduce, the multitude, will seldom fail in his object; but, before Ismail could avail himself of his criminal advantage, his acts had been detected. The merciful Mohammed, however, had only exiled him from Granada. The successful usurpation of Nassir drew him secretly to the capital, where his intrigues among such as had any influence over the mob soon placed

him at the head of a numerous party. Many, too, joined him, not so much from attachment to him, as from hatred to Nassir. But his plots were again discovered, and an order issued for his arrest. It was issued too late: he had received notice of his danger, and had fled to Malaga, where he set the usurper's power at defiance. Another incident increased the mortification of Nassir: being suddenly seized by apoplexy, and believed to be dead, the mob shouted for the restoration of Mohammed; and the friends of that prince—such were all who loved order—forced him from his retreat, and brought him to Granada. On reaching the city, however, they were surprised to find the same mob rejoicing at the unexpected restoration of Nassir. Mohammed was glad to seek his former retreat, where he soon ended his days. The usurper had reason to reflect on the precarious position which he occupied. In A. H. 711, the king of Castile, whose previous inactivity arose from internal dissensions, invaded the usurper's dominions, and took several fortresses; and though the sudden and mysterious death of Fernando* rid him of a foreign enemy, he had little reason to exult in his security. The son of Ferag marched against him, defeated him, and compelled him to cede Malaga in full sovereignty to successful rebellion. This dismemberment of the kingdom brought Nassir into contempt with his people. The arbitrary and capricious conduct of his hajib increased the public discontent to such a degree, that the party of Ismail became more and more formidable by the defection of the citizens. In 713, the mob, at the instigation of Ismail's agents, openly revolted; forced Nassir to dismiss his minister; and would have proceeded to greater extremities, had he not artfully addressed them, and persuaded them for a time to resume their obedience. But in attempting to eradicate, by numerous exertions, the seeds of the disaffection, he hastened his downfall. Thousands resorted to Ismail, who had just been admitted into Loxa, and who now boldly advanced on the capital: Mohammed had ceased to exist. Nassir was easily defeated; was pursued into the city, the gates of which were opened to the victor by the inhabitants; was besieged in the alcazar, and compelled to resign the throne to Ismail. To the credit of Nassir, it must be recorded that he retired without murmuring to private life; and that though, during the commotions which followed, he was frequently urged by his friends to struggle again for the supreme power, he resolutely refused to do so.†

* See the reign of Fernando IV. in the next section.

† Abu Abdalla, *Vestis Acu Picta* (Regum Marinorum Series), p. 235. *Granatensis Encyclica seu Bibliotheca Arab.-Hisp. passim, necnon Splen-*

ISMAIL BEN FERAG was a rigorous observer of the external practices enjoined by the Koran, a brave soldier, and undaunted in reverses. He had soon to defend his frontiers against the two regents of Castile, the princes Pedro and Juan. In spite, however, of his efforts, several fortresses south of the Guadalquivir fell into the hands of the Christians; and the disaster would have been greater, but for the jealousy entertained by don Juan towards his brother, whose bravery was the theme of much admiration. The Moorish king failed in an attempt to surprise Gibraltar. It seems, indeed, as if the Moors had for a time forgotten their ancient valor, or that they considered all resistance useless. Ismail summoned before him the governors of the frontiers and the chiefs of his army; severally reprehended them for their criminal despondency; proclaimed the *Algihed*, or holy war; and having by these means raised a numerous force, advanced towards the invaders, who were laying waste the very heart of his kingdom, and appeared within sight of his capital. This time fortune befriended him. In A. H. 719, he obtained a most signal victory over the enemy, leaving the two infants dead on the field. A truce of four years followed; but as it was confined to the frontiers of Jaen and Cordova, it did not prevent the Moorish king from obtaining some successes on the side of Murcia. These successes, too trifling to be particularized, were entirely owing to the internal dissensions of Castile, after the death of the two regents. On the expiration of the truce (A. H. 724), Ismail again menaced the southern frontier of his enemy. Both Baza and Martos, which he reduced, experienced the sternness of his character: in both he caused torrents of blood to flow; doubtless because he was exasperated at the bravery with which both, though thinly garrisoned, had withstood his assaults. He little foresaw that these triumphs were to prove his ruin.

Among the captives made at Martos there was a Christian maiden of surpassing beauty. The Mussulmans who first seized her disputed who should possess her, and, to end the quarrel some were preparing to cut her in pieces; when Mohammed, a prince of the royal house of Granada, flew to her rescue. He became instantly and deeply smitten with the fair Christian; but, unfortunately for him, the king, on seeing her, was not less so. Power prevailed; the maiden, in opposition to the prayers and remonstrances of Mohammed, was immediately consigned to the royal harem. Rage the

dor Plenilunii, pp. 272—281. (apud Casiri, tom. ii.). Condé by Marlés, *Histoire de la Domination, &c.* iii. 142—162. D'Herbelot, *Bibliothèque Orientale*, passim. Also the *Chronicon Dni. Joannis Emmanuelis* (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, ii. 215.), the *Chronicon Conimbricense*, the *Chronicon de Cardena*, and the *Anales Toledanos*, iii. (apud eundem, tom. xxiii.).

most unbounded now took possession of Mohammed's soul. Having assembled his friends, who joined in his desire of vengeance, the death of the king was resolved. The following day they took their station at the entrance of the Alhambra, telling the eunuchs of the guard that they were waiting to speak with the king as he left the palace. Ismail soon appeared, attended only by one of his wasirs: Mohammed instantly approached as if to salute him, and, with a poniard, gave him three mortal wounds. The wasir fell at the same moment under the weapons of the other conspirators, all of whom fled on the accomplishment of their atrocious purpose. The sound drew the domestics of the palace, who carried the unfortunate victim to his inner apartment, where he soon breathed his last. The mournful intelligence of the assassination flew through the city, and spread general gloom; for Ismail died in the arms of victory, before the short-lived gratitude of the populace had time to cool. The royal guard indulged in tremendous imprecations against the assassins; but, though several were put to death, the greater number escaped. Othman, the captain of the guard, was one of the conspirators. To conceal the knowledge of his guilt, he was one of the first to proclaim the son of Ismail, Mohammed, as king of the faithful.*

A. H. 725. MOHAMMED IV. was remarkable for mild gravity, for a magnificent taste, for his fondness of chivalric exercises, and for a sound judgment. It appears, however, to 733. that he was not very much addicted to public affairs; for he abandoned the cares of government to an ambitious, tyrannical minister, who insulted the great, and oppressed the people. This hagib was even powerful enough to 726. obtain the imprisonment of one brother of his master, and the exile of another; and, by the haughtiness of his manner, he so disgusted Othman, commander of the troops, that the latter raised the standard of revolt in Andalusia; proclaimed Mohammed ben Ferag, uncle of the reigning king; and by his emissaries prevailed on the Christians to invade the kingdom. Indignant at these disasters, the Moorish sovereign arrested and eventually beheaded his hagib; but it was too late to remedy 727. them. The Castilians seized on Vera, Olbera, Pruna, and Ayamonte, defeated Mohammed in person, who vainly endeavored to arrest their progress, or to crush the revolt of Othman. A still worse disaster was the arrival of a considerable African force in aid of Othman, who belonged to the royal family of Fez. They defeated the general of Mohammed, took Algeziras, Marbella, and Ronda, and effected a junction with the chief of the rebels.

* The same authorities as before.

But Mohammed had too much firmness of character to sink under these accumulated misfortunes. He opened a campaign against the Christians, in which he resolved either to conquer, or bury himself under the ruins of his monarchy. Having, thanks to their civil troubles, reduced two fortresses, he laid siege to the more important one of Baena. In a combat under the walls of that place, he one day sent his lance through the body of a Christian horseman. As the lance was ornamented with jewels, some of his attendants hastened to recover it, when he detained them saying, "Let the poor wretch alone! If he should not die of his wound, let him, at least, have something to pay for its cure!" Baena soon capitulated, and in one single campaign Mohammed was fortunate enough to recover all the fortresses he had lost, and even gained Gibraltar. Othman, too, returned to his duty, and was pardoned. The year following, however, (730), though the last place ^{A. H.} was unsuccessfully besieged by king Alfonso XI., ^{730.} Mohammed was signally defeated by the Castilian monarch, and again deprived of a portion of the places he had recovered.

At this time, owing, probably, to the reappearance of the Castilian king on the field of battle, Mohammed applied for aid to the king of Fez; and an African army immediately passed the Straits. But, as the reader must long ago have observed, such aid was generally dearly bought by the Mohammedans of Spain. The new ally, when unsuspectingly received into Gibraltar, did not scruple to usurp the possession of that important fortress. Too weak to think of revenge, the king of Granada could only tamely acquiesce in the usurpation; and the Moors, the most perfidious of men, gloried in their prize. When Alfonso was momentarily freed from the curse of rebellion,—a curse which seldom failed to afflict the sovereigns of his nation during the middle ages,—he laid siege to the place; but after vigorously investing it a few months, he was compelled to retire, partly on account of the commotions which again broke out at home, and partly through the valor of the Spanish Moors, who hastened to relieve the place, though it had been so perfidiously usurped from them. But perfidy was not the only thing Mohammed was to receive from his worthless allies. While he remained at Gibraltar, he could not forbear reproaching the chiefs who had, in his opinion at least, so inadequately defended the place, which, indeed, they had been on the point of surrendering. True to their character, which is repugnant alike to faith or gratitude, they vowed his destruction. They knew that he had promised to visit their sovereign Abu Hassan in Africa; that before his embarkation he would dismiss his army, except an escort of cavalry; and they waited for the opportunity of executing

their murderous intention. No sooner were his troops on their return to Granada, than assassins hourly watched his motions. One day (the 13th of the moon Dylhagia, A. H. 733,) when he left his camp to enjoy his favorite amusement of hunting, these assassins waylaid and killed him in a narrow defile, where his escort could not defend him. His incensed soldiers returned to the camp, with the view of taking a signal revenge of their base allies; but the Africans shut the gates of their fortress, and from the ramparts insulted and defied them.*

A. H. 733 YUSSEF ABUL HEGIAG, who at the time of his brother's death was returning from Gibraltar with the army, was immediately raised to the throne.

739. The first care of this prince, who was at once the most pacific, the most patriotic, and the most enlightened of the Nassir dynasty since the days of its founder, was to procure a truce of four years from king Alfonso. This interval of hostilities he employed in reforming the administration of justice, in promoting the interests of religion and morals, in the encouragement of the mechanical and other useful arts, and in the cultivation of letters. His wise and paternal sway recalled the halcyon days of the third Abderahman. His failings, however, must be allowed to detract from the excellence of his character. Either he must have been so much engrossed by his favorite pursuits, as to neglect his first and most imperative of duties,—the cares of government,—or he must have been blinded by partiality in the choice of his ministers. The first of these ministers, who was haughty, rapacious, and cruel, he was persuaded to depose: the second, a man of stern integrity, showed so much zeal in the punishment of crimes, that justice degenerated into blind vengeance. Unfortunately for the subjects of Yusef, the latter retained his post long enough to do much mischief. Slight offences were visited with death; and in the summary executions on every side, the innocent were often confounded with the guilty. It was probably owing to the sweeping cruelty of this arbitrary man, that Yusef himself subsequently caused the laws to be explained, the relation between crimes and punishments to be clearly and briefly defined, and the knowledge, both of the social duties, and of the penalties involved in their violation, made known to all his people. But if he wished justice to be done between his subjects, he himself was not slow, on one

* Abu Abdalla, *Vestis Acu Picta* (Regum Marinorum Series,) p. 237; nec non *Splendor Plenilunii*, pp. 291—297. (apud Casiri, tom. ii.). This writer, though rather diffuse on the events of this period, relates very coolly the murder of the prince, which does not even draw one word of reprobation from him. *Cronica del muy Esclarecido Principe y Rey Don Alfonso el Onzeno*, passim. Condé, by Mariés, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. iii. 179—194.

occasion at least, to plead his sovereign exception from its exercise. He had a friend, Omar by name, for whom he felt, perhaps, as much affection as a monarch usually feels for a subject, whose influence was unbounded, and whose services were deserving of signal favor. One day the whole city was surprised to hear of this favorite's disgrace. He had the misfortune to be the rival of his prince in the affections of a Moorish lady, who, unlike most of her sex, preferred the servant to the master. Yussef could never forgive the man whom he had overwhelmed with the gifts of fortune, for not sacrificing even the strongest and dearest of passions to gratify him; and Omar was consigned to a dungeon.

Soon after the termination of the truce, Alfonso, having reduced his domestic enemies to submission, prepared for war: Yussef did the same. The fate of his brother A. H. 740. did not prevent the latter from again seeking the alliance of the Africans, an army of whom, towards the close of the year 740, landed on the coasts of Andalusia. Orders had been given to the Castilian admiral to intercept this armament; and his inability to do so was imputed to him as a crime by some of Alfonso's courtiers, who even insinuated a doubt whether he was not in correspondence with the enemy. This injurious suspicion so wrought on this brave officer, that, with his small fleet, he had the rashness to seek out that of the enemy, many times his superior in strength, and to attack it. The consequences, as might naturally be expected, were fatal to the hopes of Alfonso, whose ships were almost all either taken or sunk. The Castilian king had now the mortification to 741. see Andalusia overrun by African troops, and their king, Abul Hassan, master of the deep. The news of this victory was joyfully received at Granada, where it roused the citizens to greater eagerness for war. Yussef hastened to Algeziras to greet his ally. Here, having agreed on the plan of the ensuing campaign, they opened it by the siege of Tarifa, while detachments of their troops spread devastation to the gates of Xeres and Sidonia. One of the detachments, however, after an unsuccessful assault on Arcos, was cut off by a sortie of the Castilian garrison. To revenge this check, both Mohammedan princes ordered new levies, and pushed the operations of the siege with new vigor. But the besieged defended themselves with great valor; and it was not until their provisions were exhausted, that they sent urgent messengers to Alfonso, praying for aid. This prince at length dispatched another fleet (chiefly supplied by the Genoese), to cruise in the Straits of Gibraltar, and cut off all communication between the king of Fez and the African continent. This fleet, however, had no better success than the former; most of the ships were driven

on shore by the violence of the tempest, and became the prize of the misbelievers. The king now perceived that the time was arrived when he must either march to raise the siege, or submit to see his provinces laid waste by a merciless foe. Accompanied by his ally, the king of Portugal, he advanced towards the camp of the besiegers, which they reached in October, A. D. 1340, as it lay encamped on the little river Salado. Having thrown supplies into the place, notwithstanding the opposition of the enemy, the two Christian kings next agreed that while Alfonso engaged the Africans, the other should fall on the troops of Yusef.

On the morning of the battle, the most memorable that had occurred between the two powers since that which had annihilated the force of Africa on the plains of Tolosa,* Alfonso having confessed and communicated from the hands of the archbishop of Toledo, passed the river at the head of his troops, and the struggle began. That the Christians must have performed prodigies of valor will readily be believed, when it is considered that their number did not probably exceed a fourth part of the enemy's forces.† At one time Alfonso himself was in great danger. His standard-bearer and the bulk of his guard had passed on to occupy an eminence, which was no sooner perceived by the Moors, than he was assailed by a whole multitude. They found him prepared:—"Do not forget," said the Christian hero to his handful of defenders, "that your king is here; that he is about to witness your valor, and you his!" At the same time he prepared to plunge into the midst of the affray, when the archbishop of Toledo seized the bridle of his horse, reminding him that he ought not, by seeking his own destruction, to risk that of his army, especially as the battle on other parts of the field was evidently in his favor. The arrival of some troops, who were made acquainted with his critical position, enabled him to disperse his opponents, and to superintend the action, which was now become general, nearer the centre of strife. At mid-day the African tribes, exhausted by fatigue, and discouraged by the severe loss they had sustained, began to give way. A seasonable charge by the garrison of Tarifa accelerated their flight. A considerable number indeed returned to defend the tent of their king, which the Christians were furiously assailing; but they were soon dissipated, or added to the slaughtered heaps around; the royal pavilion was forced, and an immense plunder, with the favorite women of Abul Hassan, became the prize of the victors.

* See page 73, of the present volume.

† The Spanish histories estimate their own number, no doubt correctly, at about 80,000, that of the enemy at 400,000. This disproportion is too absurd to be received.

During these momentous events, Yussef nobly maintained the honor of the Andalusian name, at the head of his cavalry; but seeing the Africans fleeing in every direction, and being equally disheartened by the severity of his own loss, he gave the signal for his troops to retreat. While Abul Hassan fled precipitately to Gibraltar, and thence without delay into Africa, to sustain the complaints and murmurs of his people, Yussef also fled by sea to Almuñecar, to join with his subjects in the universal mourning caused by this disaster. To ascertain the number of the slain is impossible, but it was doubtless immense; scarcely a family in Granada which had not to mourn the loss of a member.* The submission of several fortresses in the vicinity followed this almost miraculous victory; and the ensuing year the destruction of the Mohammedan fleet was effected by that of the Christians; for Alfonso had succeeded in forming a third from the wrecks of the two former, and from the ships which arrived from Portugal, Aragon, and Italy.†

In A. H. 743, Alfonso, who had greatly recruited his army, having resolved to profit by his successes, laid A. H. 743 siege to Algeziras. Yussef hastened to relieve the place, but without success. Defeated by the Castilian army, to 753. disappointed in the succor he had expected from Africa, he had no alternative but to procure as favorable terms of capitulation as he could. The garrison and inhabitants were permitted to retire with their property; the fortress was immediately entered by the Christians, and a truce for ten years was granted to Yussef, on condition, if we may believe the Spanish chroniclers, of his doing homage to Alfonso.‡ Before the expiration, however, of this period (in A. H. 750), the Castilian king invested Gibraltar, the possession of which would have enabled him to command the approaches into Andalusia, and destroy the communication between Spain and Africa. But a contagious disorder broke out among his troops; he himself became its victim, after a siege of six months, just as the place was reduced to extremities, and the Christians retired from the fatal spot. Though glad to be rid of so formidable a rival, Yussef honored alike the virtues and valor of Alfonso, whom he justly regarded as one of the greatest princes Spain

* It is outrageously fixed by the Spanish writers at 200,000, while their own is modestly reduced to twenty individuals! Its extent, however, is amply admitted by Abu Abdalla:—"Infortunium alterum huic simile Mohammedanis nunquam accidisse fertur." are the words of his translator Casiri.

† *Chronicon Conimbricense*, p. 343. (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, tom. xxiii.) *Cronica del Rey Don Alonso el Onzeno*, passim. Zurita, *Anales de la Corona de Aragon* (in regnis Alfonso IV. et Pedro IV.) To these add the fragments of Casiri and Condé, by Marlés.

‡ The same chroniclers tell us that during the siege a Moor was employed to assassinate Alfonso. This may be very true.

had ever produced, and for whom both he and his court appeared in mourning.

Yussef did not long survive his illustrious contemporary. On the first day of the moon Xawal (A. H. 753) he was stabbed, while at prayers in the mosque, by a madman. His character has been already described; but it would be impossible to recount all the acts which endeared him to his people. The care which he took of their religion proves the sincerity of his own. He ordered that prayers should be made in public daily, and the Koran explained on certain fixed days; that no Musulman should be absent from these religious exercises; and as some alleged for an excuse the distance of their habitations from any mosque, he commanded that in future no habitation should be built more than two leagues from a house of prayer, unless twelve such habitations were built at the same time; in which case a mosque should be erected for the convenience of the inmates. The men, he enjoined, should be separated from the women, and should not be allowed to leave the mosque until the latter had departed. He abolished many abuses which had gradually crept into the discipline of Islamism, such as nocturnal assemblies in the mosques, public processions in time of drought for procuring rain from heaven,* hired mourners at funerals, the use of amulets and garlands for the dead, &c.† But his regulations for the police were, next to his improvements in the laws and their administration, the most beneficial of his measures. He divided each great town into districts, placed an inspector over each, caused patrols to parade the streets during the night, fixed the hour when the gates of each city should be closed in the evening and opened in the morn-

* Yussef caused a prayer to be composed expressly for the purpose, in which Heaven was requested to have mercy on the beasts of the field and the fowls of the air; to look on the poor withered plants; to spread abroad the dew of His goodness; to hear and answer the prayers of the faithful, lest the infidels should deride them, &c.

† A formula for the dead also was given, to be repeated by the faqui, or some other leading person, at the tomb:—

"Alla Hu Akbar! Glory to God, who sends death and resurrection! Glory to God, the High and the Mighty! Oh, Lord! bless Mahomet and his disciples! This our dead brother was thy servant. Thou didst create and preserve him, and thou wilt one day raise him. Thou knowest his whole life, public and private. We beseech thee for him! Defend him against the temptation of the tomb—deliver him from the torments of Gehenna! Cleanse thy servant from his sins—open before him the gates of Paradise! If he has been righteous, grant him thy glorious rewards; if he has been wicked, pardon him, for thou art goodness and mercy!" &c. Again the "Alla Hu Akbar!" was thrice repeated; and the speaker added:—

"Lord God! pardon the living and the dead—those who are here present, as well as the absent, the old and the young, men and women! All our hope is in thee. Protect us, and strengthen us at the hour of death! Deliver us from Gehenna, and grant that our lives may have a holy ending!"

When the corpse was deposited in the tomb;—

"O Lord! our brother returneth unto thee: he leaveth the world to return unto thee! Receive him into thy mercy!"

ing; regulated the markets, the manner of buying and selling, the prices of provisions, &c. With respect to the laws, to which allusion has been made, the Andalusian writers do not give us much information. At first, adultery, fornication, &c. were visited with the same capital penalty as murder; but as the feelings of men revolted at the severity of the punishment, ample latitude was allowed for the criminal's escape by a subsequent clause that the act should not be considered as proved unless witnessed by *four* veracious individuals.* Afterwards the penalty of death was displaced by that of imprisonment, the term to vary according to the circumstances of the case, and to be determined by the discretion of the judge. In general, however, even this mitigated punishment was evaded; the parties, if equal in their condition, being compelled to marry. Theft was severely chastised: for the first offence the culprit lost his right hand; for the second, his right foot; for the third, his left hand; for the fourth, his left foot. The king, however, at the recommendation of the *cadi*, frequently mitigated this dreadful penalty. Regulations no less salutary were introduced into the army. The horseman who fled before the enemy, unless that enemy numbered three to one, or unless the order for retreat were given by the Mussulman general, was punished with death. Women and children, the sick, the old, and those consecrated to God, were not to be massacred unless found with arms in their hands, and using those arms against the faithful.† The memory of Yussef must be respected, when it is known that he who disregarded this last prohibition was to be executed. It may indeed be said, and truly said, that the humane prohibition was often disregarded, and with impunity: for who would dare to punish thousands of offenders? but a certain number would always be found conscientious enough to fulfil the law of their ancient caliphs, now restored by their king. Another restoration of the ancient discipline was, that the Christian who embraced the faith of Islam should preserve his property, or receive its value if it had been already distributed. Finally, Yussef was behind few if any of his predecessors in the care of embellishing Granada with the most splendid architectural monuments.‡

* This is something like the laws of the Wisigoths, which would allow no woman to have lost her reputation who could not be proved to have been guilty with five different men.

† See the instructions given to his army by one of the immediate successors of Mahomet, in Gibbon's *Decline and Fall*, vol. v. chapter 50. (4to. edition.)

‡ Abu Abdalla, *Vestis Acu Picta* (*Regum Marinorum Series*), p. 237, &c.; *neenon Splendor Plenilunii*, p. 304, &c. (apud Casiri *Biblioth. Arab.-Hisp.* tom. ii.); Juan Nunez de Villasan, *Cronica del muy Esclarecido Principe y Rey Don Alfonso el Onzeno*, &c. p. 200. to the end (4to. edition); Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* (in regno don Pedro IV.), tom. ii.; Condé, by Marles, *His-*

A. H. **MOHAMMED V.**, the eldest son of Yussef, had virtues
753 worthy of any throne, but they did not exempt him from
 to the curse of rebellion. One of his first acts was to con-
760. fer on his brother Ismail, to whom he bore an affection
 truly paternal, a magnificent palace near the Alhambra. But the mother of Ismail had long planned the elevation of her son; and on the assassination of Yussef had seized a great portion of the royal treasures, with which she labored to form a powerful party. She first gained over her daughter, the wife of Abu Said Abdalla, one of the great pillars of the throne; and the latter, who had considerable influence over her husband, had little difficulty in moulding him to her purpose. The party silently but rapidly increased, waiting only for some favorable opportunity of deposing the reigning king, and of elevating their patron and employer to the slippery dignity.

But such was the love borne to Mohammed, and the tranquillity of his reign, that the conspirators, hopeless of the opportunity they sought, resolved to accomplish their purpose by open violence. On the 28th day of the moon Ramassan, (A. H. 760), one hundred of the most resolute among them scaled, by night, the palace of Mohammed, descended through the roof, and lay hid until midnight. On a signal being given, they rushed down the grand staircase and along the passage,—a sword in one hand, a torch in the other,—raising loud cries, and putting to death every individual they met. At the same moment, a more numerous body from without overwhelmed and massacred the guard; while a third proceeded to the house of the hagib, where they massacred him, his son, and his domestics, and laid hands on every thing they could carry away. Astonished at the ample treasures which they found in the palace, they forgot for a time their original purpose, and eagerly grasped the spoil. The opportunity was not lost: one of Mohammed's women speedily clad him in the vestments of a female slave, descended with him to the garden, and both succeeded in gaining the open country. Before daybreak he reached Guidix, the inhabitants of which received him with affection, and served him with fidelity. Soon after sunrise, Abu Said and his accomplices placed Ismail on horseback, led him through the streets of Granada, and proclaimed him Prince of the Faithful. As usual, the mob hailed the new ruler with deafening shouts.

761. When the conspirators saw that Mohammed had not only escaped, but found zealous adherents, they endeavored to strengthen themselves by an alliance with Pe-

toire de la Domination, &c. iii. 194—229. ; D'Herbelot, Bibliothèque Orientale, passim. This last excellent writer, however, gives us little information either as to the history or the literature of Moorish Spain.

dro the Cruel, king of Leon and Castile; as the condition of which, they offered the sovereignty of Granada. Pedro readily accepted the condition. Mohammed next applied for his aid, and received the same promises: he was evidently waiting to draw his own advantages from both. The dethroned monarch next proceeded to Fez (761), and prevailed on the king of that place to arm in his behalf. In the mean time, Ismail found his usurped throne surrounded by danger and difficulty. Domineered over by Abu Said, the instrument of his elevation, before whom his feeble character was forced to bend, and regarded with indifference by the mob, he shut himself up in his harem,—alike averse and unqualified for public affairs. Abu Said soon plotted to dethrone this phantom of a king. He had little difficulty in persuading the populace to surround the palace, and demand not merely the deposition, but the head, of Ismail. The impotent king fled to the fortress of the Alhambra; but being induced to risk the fate of a battle, he fell into the hands of his enemy, who, after upbraiding him for the vices of his government, ordered him in a loud voice to be led to prison, but in an under tone to be assassinated on the way. The deed was punctually performed; and the head of Ismail was shown to the applauding populace, who dragged it, as well as one which was now struck off a brother of Ismail, by the hair, through the mire. The people then proclaimed Abu Said.

In 762, Mohammed disembarked at Gibraltar, followed by an army of Africans, and rapidly advanced on Granada. The usurper endeavored to arrest his progress; but the number of Africans was so great, that his partisans dared not risk a battle. But what their valor could not effect, fortune did for him: the invaders were unexpectedly summoned back to Fez by one of the revolutions so common in Mohammedan history, and of almost daily occurrence in Africa. Deserted by his allies, Mohammed now threw himself into Ronda, where he renewed his correspondence with the new monarch of Fez, and with the king of Castile. At length Pedro marched to the relief of the suppliant. To prepare for the approaching storm, Abu Said dispatched a strong body of cavalry to lay waste the frontier of Cordova, and at the same time allied himself with Pedro's mortal enemy, the king of Aragon. While Pedro made an unsuccessful attack on Antequera, a division of his cavalry, under the grand masters of Santiago, Calatrava, and Alcantara, accompanied by Mohammed, appeared within sight of Granada. The exiled king seems to have held out the hope that his reappearance among his subjects would be the signal for universal defection from the cause of the usurper. He was soon undeceived: few, if any of them, left the city to join him.

A. H.
762.

763

The Christian army retired to Alcala Real; some accounts say in consequence of Mohammed's aversion to shed the blood of his people, while he himself again sought his retreat of Ronda.*

But Mohammed was not always destined to be thus
 A. H. unsuccessful: he was first to be rid of his usurping rival.
 764 Soon after the retreat of Pedro, the troops of Abu Said,
 to having been defeated by the Christians near the Guadal-
 793. quivir, were more fortunate at Guadix. A detachment
 of cavalry, under the grand master of Calatrava, was cut in
 pieces, or obliged to surrender. The general himself was
 among the prisoners; and as he was understood to be nearly
 connected with the Castilian king, Abu Said, in the view of
 gaining a friend or disarming an enemy, sent him and the
 other prisoners home without ransom. As the city of Malaga
 declared at this time for the lawful sovereign, the usurper
 was the more anxious to obtain the favor of Pedro. The sen-
 sation which the intelligence of this event caused in Granada
 itself seriously alarmed him: to withstand both the Christians
 and his revolted subjects was impossible. In this emergency,
 he decided on the same expedient as had been adopted by the
 founder of his kingdom: he resolved, in person, to do homage
 to the crown of Castile, and hold Granada thenceforth as an
 hereditary fief. With an escort of 400 horse and 200 foot,
 and his richest treasures, he went to Baena, and demanded
 from the prior of St. John a safe-conduct to the presence of
 Pedro. The prior acquainted his sovereign with the demand;
 and having immediately received from Seville the necessary
 authority, he empowered the Moor to proceed. Accordingly,
 Abu Said repaired to that city, and was very favorably re-
 ceived by the king. But the riches which the Moor had with
 him, even after presenting a considerable portion to Pedro,
 awoke the avarice of that prince, who planned one of the
 blackest and most extraordinary crimes ever devised by
 crowned head. This was no other than to put to death his
 unsuspecting guest and vassal, with that prince's companions,
 and thereby to become possessed of the wealth he coveted.
 Having agreed with some of his creatures on the conduct of
 this dark tragedy, one of them—the master, too, of a religious
 order of knighthood—invited Abu Said to an entertainment,
 who readily accepted the invitation. While at table, a num-
 ber of armed men entered the apartment, seized on the Moor-
 ish king and his companions, rifled them, and dragged them
 to prison. The following day Abu Said and thirty-seven of

* The Mohammedan writers, always supposing that Condé is faithfully rendered by Marlés, make Pedro himself advance in sight of Granada with his whole army. This is an error which Marlés ought to have corrected.

his companions were paraded through the streets of Seville (the king himself being mounted on an ass, and clad in a scarlet petticoat), and were preceded by a herald, who cried in a loud voice that these were persons whom king don Pedro had condemned to death for dethroning their lawful sovereign. Being conducted to a field behind the Alcazar, Abu Said was pierced to the heart by the royal hand of the ferocious Pedro, while his companions were dispatched by the tyrant's satellites. "Behold the judgment," cried the same herald, "which the king our lord hath caused to be done on these traitors!"*

No sooner did Mohammed hear of this almost incredible deed, than he hastened to Granada, and was received with acclamations by the very mob which three years before had attempted his life. Knowing that it was his interest to preserve a good understanding with the formidable assassin of Seville, he sent, in return for the head of Abu Said, twenty-five of his best horses richly caparisoned, as many scimitars adorned with precious stones, and all the Christian prisoners unransomed who yet remained in the fortresses of his kingdom.

The remainder of Mohammed's life was troubled by one unimportant revolt only, which was speedily repressed. In the wars between Pedro and Enrique, in which the latter triumphed, he furnished some thousands of troops to the former; and on one occasion at least took a personal share in the war, less for the sake of his ally, than to profit by the dissensions of the Christians, and recover some of the conquests lost by his immediate predecessors. He took and ruined Algeziras, but was induced to make peace with king Enrique. Having devoted his days to promote the welfare of his people, he died, A. H. 793, lamented by all.†

YUSSEF II. (Abu Abdalla) commenced his reign by imitating alike his father's policy and virtues, by renewing the truce with, perhaps doing homage to, the crown of Castile, and by assiduously endeavoring to promote the happiness of his people. Scarcely, however, was he seated on his throne, where he narrowly escaped falling a victim to the rebellion of his younger son Mohammed. That

A. H.
793
to
799.

* The remaining persons composing the Moorish escort were sold as slaves.

† Abu Abdalla, *Vestis Acu Picta*, (Regum Marinorum Series,) p. 249, &c.; *neonon Splendor Plenilunii*, p. 306, &c. (apud Casiri, *Bibliotheca Arab. Hisp.* tom. ii.); Pedro Lopez de Ayala, *Cronica del Serenissimo Rey Don Pedro*, &c. fol. 88, &c.; Rodericus Santius, *Historia Hispanica*, cap. 14. *Alfonso a Carthagera, Anacephaleosis*, cap. 83. (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. v.). Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* (in regno don Pedro IV.), tom. ii.; Condé, by Mariés, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. iii. 229–244.

We regret that we must here take leave of Abu Abdalla, whose work (*Splendor Plenilunii*) ends before the death of Mohammed, in A. H. 785. Eleven years afterwards he was put to death, by order of Mohammed, on a charge, whether true or false, of high treason.

prince, jealous of the rights attached to the primogeniture of his brother, endeavored not only to exclude that brother, but to hurl his parent from the throne. By artfully representing his father as a Christian at heart (and, as Yusef was an open protector of the Christians, the multitude readily credited the report), he prevailed on them to surround the royal palace, and demand the deposition of the reigning king. Their number was so great, and their clamor so loud, that Yusef was on the point of abdicating, when the ambassador of Fez went out and harangued them. He observed, that if they had any doubt of their king being a true Mussulman, their best policy was to demand a war with Castile, and if Yusef showed any hesitation to lead them on, then would be the time to displace him. The reasonableness of the observation was so evident, that even the multitude could understand it, and war was instantly decreed. Murcia was invaded, but without much effect; a circumstance which completely cooled the blind fanaticism of these zealots; and as Yusef took care to explain to Enrique of Castile the cause of his compulsory arming, peace was soon restored between the two states. On a subsequent occasion (798), the Christian monarch was no less ready to disavow the hostile irruption of the grand master of Alcantara, who, pushed by the same fanaticism,* advanced into the plains of Granada, and was cut to pieces with his little troop. The Moorish king did not long survive this event: as he was still young, his death was, as usual, attributed to some extraordinary cause.†

799: No sooner had Yusef expired, than MOHAMMED VI., by means of his partisans, seized on the sceptre, to the prejudice of his elder brother. It does not appear that Yusef ben Yusef made any attempt to enforce his rights. All his ambition was to lead a quiet life; and he probably felt little regret on being exiled to the fortress of Salobrena with his wives and domestics.

800 This prince commenced his reign by the very same policy which he had condemned in his father: he renewed the peace with the Christians. He even paid a secret visit to Seville, and had a long interview on the subject with the young king, Enrique III. But peace could not always be preserved: the governors of the frontier fortresses frequently violated it; and more than once both kings armed to punish aggression, or to derive advantage from the

* He was persuaded by a hermit, Juan Sago by name, to invade the Moorish kingdom with about 300 horse and 1000 foot soldiers, on the assurance that not a single follower would fall, and that the expulsion of the Moors from their very capital was—so Heaven decreed—reserved for him alone.

† He is said to have been poisoned, like Hercules of old, by a tunic sent him by the king of Fez.

partial and alternate successes of their too zealous servants. In 808 the Mohammedans took Ayamonte; the year following, they defeated a small army of Christians on the banks of the Guadiana; in a second engagement they were defeated in turn, the success of a third was doubtful. In the two succeeding campaigns they were less fortunate. Fer-^{A. H.} 810. nando, the regent of Castile, reduced Zahara, retook Ayamonte, and several other fortresses. Wearied with their mutual fatigues, both parties at length agreed to a truce, and returned to their respective posts.

Mohammed had scarcely retired to his capital, when he was seized by an illness which he felt would be fatal. His end corresponded with his stormy and unprincipled life. With the view of securing the crown to his son, he wrote to the alcalde of Salobrena, ordering the head of his brother to be returned by the messenger, Ahmed, an officer of his guard.* When Ahmed arrived at Salobrena, he found the prince playing at chess with the alcalde. No sooner had the latter glanced his eyes over the fatal writing, than he turned pale; for the good qualities of Yussef had won his heart, and the hearts of all in the fortress. He knew not how to break the intelligence to the intended victim; but his agitation betrayed some dreadful truth: Yussef took the scroll from his trembling hands, and, on perusing it, mildly requested that a few hours' respite might be allowed to take a last leave of his family. This Ahmed refused to grant; justly observing, that unless the head of the prince were in Granada at a certain hour, his own must fall as the penalty of disobedience. Yussef then begged that he and the alcalde might be permitted to finish their game,—a request which Ahmed reluctantly granted. But whatever might be the composure of the prince, the alcalde was so agitated that he lost all command over his judgment, and committed such egregious blunders, that his opponent in the game rallied him on his distraction. Just as the game was concluded, two horsemen arrived full speed from Granada, entered the apartment, announced the death of Mohammed, and kissed the hand of Yussef as the new sovereign. The prince could scarcely believe in the extraordinary change of his fortunes, until other messengers confirmed its reality.

YUSSEF III., who had passed thirteen years in that best of schools, adversity, became a wise and paternal sovereign, averse to war abroad and cruelty at home, and placing his chief happiness in the weal of his people. But war he could not at first avoid; because he refused

* "Alcalde of Salobrena, my servant,—

"As soon as Ahmed ben Xarac, officer of my guards, shall deliver thee this writing, thou wilt put to death the Cid Yussef, my brother, and send his head by the same messenger. I rely on thy zeal to serve me."

to acknowledge himself the vassal of Castile. Its issue by no means corresponded with his wishes. If he recovered Zahara, he lost Antequera. If he had the glory of giving a new sovereign to Fez in the person of the *cid* Abu Said, brother to the reigning king of that place, who had sought his protection, he was obliged to purchase peace from the too formidable Christians. From this time (817) to his death, that peace was uninterrupted. He died in 827, and with him ended the tranquillity of his country.*

A. H. MOHAMMED (MULEY) VII. was surnamed El Hayzari, 827 or the Left-handed,—whether because he really used that hand in preference, or on account of his ill-fortune, to 833. is uncertain. Of a haughty and overbearing character, he was little fitted to rule a people so turbulent as those of Granada. Of all the wise counsels which he had received from his father, he followed only one—the preservation of peace with the Christians. Hence he became not merely unpopular, but so odious, that the people would have dethroned him soon after his accession, had not they been restrained by the prudent gravity of the *hagib* Yusef ben Zeragh,† one of the most influential sheiks of the kingdom. At length, when Mohammed had prohibited some favorite public diversions, the spirit of insubordination broke out, the Alhambra was invested, the king escaped from the city to the court of his kinsman, the sovereign of Tunis, and his cousin Mohammed el Zaquir was 831. raised to the vacant dignity. But MOHAMMED VIII. was not long to enjoy his usurped power. Though he restored the favorite amusement of the people, he labored to annihilate the party of the lawful sovereign, and by so doing created many powerful enemies. Not a few sought an asylum at the court of don Juan, the young king of Castile, whom they interested in the cause of the exiled king. Juan wrote to the king of Tunis, in favor of Mohammed, whose restoration he promised to aid by force of arms. This encouragement was 833. not thrown away on the exile. Accompanied by 500 African horse, he passed the strait, landed in Andalusia, was joined not only by the Christians, but by the very partisans of El Zaquir, and was triumphantly borne to the capital without a single engagement. The usurper was besieged in the Alhambra, was surrounded by his own soldiers, and beheaded, and El Hayzari was restored.

* Authorities: Pedro Lopez de Ayala, *Cronicas de los Reyes de Castilla*, *passim*. Rod. Santius, *Historia Hispanica*, cap. 16. Alfonsus à Carthagena, *Anacephaleosis*, cap. 90. (apud Schottum, tom. i.). Zurita, *Anales de Araçon* (in regnos don Juan I., don Martin, don Fernando I., don Alfonso V.); Condé, by Marlés, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. iii. 244—275.

† From this sheik is derived the imaginary tribe of the Abencerrages, so famous in Spanish romance, and so well known to youthful readers from Florian's bombastic Gonsale de Cordoue.

But as gratitude is seldom the most prominent virtue of princes, Mohammed showed little disposition to discharge the obligations he had contracted with the king of Castile, to whom he was chiefly indebted for his restoration. The troubles which seldom ceased to distract that kingdom, and now raged with additional violence, seemed to afford him an opportunity of breaking his faith with impunity. He was justly undeceived: having pacified his states, Juan invaded the Moorish kingdom, forced Mohammed to retreat into the capital, took Illora, Archidona, &c., and an immense booty. This was not the worst of Mohammed's disasters: he found in his capital an enemy more to be dreaded than even the Castilian. Yussef ben Alhamar, descended from the first kings of Granada, seeing the unpopularity into which Mohammed was fallen, both from the ill success of the war and from his personal character, aimed at dethroning him. Being persuaded by his friends to seek the alliance of Juan, Yussef sent a trusty agent to Seville, and offered to become a faithful vassal of Castile, on condition of support. The condition was accepted; an army was raised to aid his pretensions. His partisans increased so rapidly, that he left Granada, erected the standard of revolt, and was joined by eight thousand of the citizens and by his Christian ally. The two princes encamped at the foot of the mountains of Elvira, within sight of the capital. But patriotism was not yet dead in the bosoms of the inhabitants: the impending danger armed them all in defence of their walls; various sorties were made; and at length a general action ensued, in which they lost the flower of their population, and their best troops. Even this disaster did not discourage either them or their king, and they resolved to bury themselves under the ruins of their habitations rather than submit to the yoke of the Christians. Fortunately for them, Juan, although willing to invest the place, was persuaded by his counsellors to desist from the undertaking, on the ground that his army was without money and provisions. Before his return, however, he caused Yussef to be declared king of Granada, and enjoined his garrisons on the frontiers to assist the latter by every means in their power. This declaration produced considerable effect: many fortified places acknowledged Yussef, whose army was soon so much increased that he was prepared to assume the offensive. In 836, Aben Zeragh, the general of Mohammed, was signally defeated and slain; the victor marched on Granada, and was joined on his way by a multitude of adherents. Mohammed was exhorted, even by his own partisans, to spare the city the horrors of an assault. Seeing that resistance was hopeless, he collected his treasures and his women, and fled to Malaga. Yussef entered the capi-

tal at the head of 600 horse only, as if to show that he owed his elevation ~~not~~ to force, but to the will of the people. He speedily convoked the walis, the nazirs, and the sheiks of the kingdom, to receive their oaths of fidelity. But the life of Mohammed was chequered with the most extraordinary alternations of fortune that ever befell monarch;—his rival died after six months' reign, and he was again recalled from exile to occupy the throne.

A. H. The web of Mohammed's singular fate, however, was
837 not yet fully woven: he was to be dethroned a third time.
849 A respite of some years, indeed, was allowed him before
to his final degradation—if that can be called a respite,
849 where he could enjoy no peace within or without.

Every season his kingdom was laid waste by the Christian governors of the frontiers, who, though Castile was again the prey of civil dissensions, were not the less eager for the plunder of the Moors. Their devastations reduced the peaceable inhabitants to the greatest misery.* The two Velez, El Blanco and El Rubio, were so much discouraged by these periodical irruptions, that, to avert the scourge, they opened their gates to the Christians: Baza and Guadix were, however, willing enough to pay tribute and acknowledge the king of Castile as their sovereign; but they refused to admit a Castilian garrison, and their submissions were not accepted. In these partial actions, more blood was shed than would have flowed had the war been general; and the productions of the earth were everywhere laid waste. Hence the dissatisfaction which prevailed among the Moors, and their murmurings at the government: the conduct of Mohammed himself was not of a character to

* When the reader meets with such words as *devastated*, *laid waste*, &c. he is to understand them *literally*. In the armies of the Christian invaders—and the case was the same with the Moorish, when they could penetrate into the territories of their enemies—were always a numerous body of soldiers, called *taladores*, whose duty was to cut down every fruit tree, every field of corn, every vine, and utterly to ruin every garden, while the rest of the army fought with the enemy.

"Toda esta gente, que eran fasta seis mil homes á caballo e doce mil peones; entraron en el reyno de Granada contra los partes de Malaga, e talaron luego los panes, e viñas, e olivares, e figuerales, e todas las otras cosas que fallaron, en el circuito de la villa de Alora. Y entre tanto que la tala se facia, la batalla de la gente del duque de Medina, etc.; se pusieron delante de la villa para facer resistencia á los Moros que estaban en guarda della que no saliesen á facer daño en los taladores.

"Talada toda aquella tierra, la hueste paso, y talaron todos los panes, e olivares, e viñas, e huertas, e figuerales, e todas los otros arboles que fallaron en los valles e tierras de Copin, e del Sabinall, e de Cazarabonela, e de Almeria, e de Cartama, en lo qual estuvieron diez dias. E los Moros de Cartama salieron, á defender la tala que se facia en los huertas, que eran cerea de la villa," &c.—*Hernando del Pulgar, Cronica de los Señores Reyes Católicos Don Fernando y Doña Isabel*, p. 226.

Thus the taladores, or cutters down, went on from valley to valley, until they had made a desert of all. This was war in all its horrors; but as these horrors must have fallen chiefly on the peaceful peasantry, the conduct of those who enjoined them cannot be too much execrated.

allay their discontent. His two expulsions from his capital rankled in his mind; and the chiefs who had been concerned in either were not likely to remain unpunished, whenever any pretext could be found for his severity. To escape the fate of their brethren, many took refuge at the court of Juan. Among them was Mohammed ben Ismail, a nephew of the king, who, besides his probable implication in political charges, had to complain of being thwarted in an intended marriage with a Moorish lady, and of seeing her forcibly bestowed on one of his uncle's creatures. But El Hayzari had a more formidable because a nearer enemy, whose recent object had long been to snatch the reins of government from his hands. Another nephew, Mohammed ben Osmin, seeing the increasing unpopularity of his uncle, took great pains to increase the animosity of the nobles, and to gain the populace by that never-failing argument, gold. When his plans were sufficiently matured, he raised a commotion among the people, seized first on all the forts of the city, and soon on the person of Mohammed, whom he consigned to a close prison. Thus did this unfortunate prince, in 849, disappear for ever from the stage of history.*

MOHAMMED IX. (BEN OSMIN) was immediately proclaimed by his own partisans; but many were hostile to his elevation. Abdelbar, who had served with much credit the office of hagib under the dethroned king, retired with a considerable number of the discontented to Montefrio. To attempt the restoration of that prince, Abdelbar knew would be vain; and he turned his thoughts towards Mohammed ben Ismail. He wrote to that prince with the offer of the sovereignty; but advised him to keep the project secret from the Castilian king, lest his departure should be opposed. Aben Ismail, however, preferred the more open and honorable part of acquainting his host with the whole business; and don Juan, so far from opposing his departure, sent express orders to the governors of the frontier fortresses to assist him in his enterprise. Accompanied by all the Moors who had sought a refuge in Castile, in 851 he arrived at Montefrio, where his party was considerably increased. But Aben Osmin, so far from dreading his preparations, still maintained a desultory warfare against the Christians, over whose isolated bands of troops he gained some advantages, and two of whose fortresses he reduced. The following year he invested Aben Ismail in Montefrio, and with another division of his army recovered

* Fernando Perez de Guzman, *Cronica del Serenissimo Rey Don Juan II.*, fol. 1—208; Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* (in regno don Alfonso V.); Rodericus Santius, *Historia Hispanica*, cap. 19. Alfonso à Carthagena, *Anacephalæsis*, cap. 92. (apud Schottum, tom. i.). Condé, by Marlès, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. iii. 275—297.

the two Velazquez and Huescar. He was evidently equal to the difficulties of his position. Knowing the hostility borne by the kings of Navarre and Aragon to their brethren of Castile, he prevailed on them to join him in a treaty, the object of which was to invade the dominions of don Juan simultaneously on three different points. Had this treaty been carried into execution, the king of Castile, then at war not only with his two Christian neighbors, but, as usual, with his rebellious subjects, might have trembled for his independence; but, fortunately, it remained inoperative.

Thus Granada had two kings, each constantly opposed to the other; while the disasters of the country were increased tenfold by the devastating irruptions of the Christians on the frontiers. During four or five years the same horrors were continued on every side; so that the assertion made by contemporary writers, that there was scarcely a plain in the country which had not been moistened by the blood of the combatants, is no exaggeration. The party of Aben Ismail, whose qualities were well fitted to inspire confidence, rapidly increased; while that of Aben Oemin, whose disposition was stern, and whose sway was arbitrary and unjust, decreased in the same ratio. The inhabitants of Granada, while enduring the rapacious cruelty of the latter, often turned an eye of envy to their more fortunate brethren of Montefrio, and longed to change masters. They longed not in vain. No sooner was don Juan able to send a reinforcement to Aben Ismail, than that prince marched against his rival, whom he signally defeated, and whom he pursued towards the capital. Hitherto the martial success of the latter had maintained him in his post, in defiance of the popular discontent; but now that victory had deserted his standard, his former adherents left him. He called the citizens to arms: their silence showed that his reign was near its end. Before his fall, however, he resolved to be revenged on them. Under the pretext of consulting the safety of the city, he convoked the heads of the people, such especially as he knew were hostile to him; and as they successively arrived at the Alhambra, they were seized and executed by the soldiers of his guard. After this exploit, so characteristic of a Moorish prince, he secretly left the place, plunged into the mountains, and for ever disappeared from the busy stage of the world.

859 MOHAMMED X., the son of Ismail, was proclaimed without opposition. His first care was to send ambassadors and presents to the new king of Castile, Enrique 871. IV., and solicit a renewal of former treaties. But Enrique, who had other views than those of his predecessor, instead of complying with the request, entered the kingdom

at the head of 14,000 horse and 20,000 foot. This force would have annihilated any army which Aben Ismail could have brought into the field, and the Moors accordingly retired before it; sometimes, however, sending detachments of cavalry to impede its advance by harassing skirmishes. Fortunately for Aben Ismail, Enrique, finding that he could not bring the enemy to an open engagement, and that the season was rapidly declining, gave the signal to retire, with the intention of resuming hostilities early in the spring. But the next season brought with it the periodical troubles, which prevented him from thinking of foreign enterprises. As usual, however, the partisan warfare by the commandants of the frontiers raged as fatally as ever. One of them, Fernando Narvaez,* governor of Antequera, with scarcely 200 men, more than once spread alarm to the very gates of Granada. Such continual irruptions were fatal to the prosperity, and even the existence, of the Moorish kingdom, which was now bounded between the mountains of Elvira and the sea. In vain did Aben Ismail apply for a truce: the partisan warfare still raged; sometimes, indeed, to the temporary triumph of his generals, but always eventually to the permanent advantage of the enemy. In 865, Archidona and Gibraltar were reduced, and the Moorish troops were everywhere defeated. In consternation at the gloomy aspect of affairs, Aben Ismail now submitted to hold his tenure as a fief of Castile, and to pay a tribute annually of 12,000 pistoles in gold. That this tribute was punctually paid until his death, which happened in 871, may be inferred from the harmony that continued to subsist between the two states.

MULEY ALI ABUL HASSAN, the elder son of the deceased king, succeeded to a throne which required alike the highest valor and the ablest policy to maintain erect. The three first years of his reign were sufficiently tranquil; but in 874 the wali of Malaga not only revolted against his authority, but did homage for the government to the king of Castile. The incensed Abul Hassan, knowing that Enrique was occupied in quenching the flames of civil war, made several destructive irruptions into the territories of his superior; but however he might lay waste the frontier, he was unable to make any impression on the compact, powerful kingdom of Castile. This temporary triumph was a poor return for the troubles which still reigned at Malaga, the general rendezvous for the discontented. He tried to reduce them, but in vain. Here Mussulman was opposed to Mussulman, in a desultory warfare more ferocious than even that

A. H.
871
to
883.

* See Appendix A.

which had so long raged on the Christian frontier,—a warfare which continued for years with scarcely any intermission, and which made lamentable havoc among the best soldiers of the kingdom. Though in 879 (A. D. 1474) he obtained a truce from the new sovereigns of Castile, Isabel and Fernando, who were too busily occupied in opposing the partisans of the princess Juana to think of extending their possessions in the south, he had little reason for self-congratulation. If he enjoyed a temporary tranquillity from without, his harem and capital were torn by discord. The sultana Zoraya, mother of Abu Abdalla, heir-presumptive of the throne, entertained a mortal hatred towards another of his wives, a Spanish lady, and mother of two princes. As the chief affection of Abul Hassan was placed on the latter, not a few of the Moorish chiefs both in the palace and the capital espoused her interests and those of her children; while a still more numerous, though not more influential, portion adhered to Zoraya. How fatal such discord proved will soon be seen.

In 883 the truce with Castile expired, and Abul Hassan applied for its renewal. The Christian sovereigns at first required the usual condition of vassalage and tribute, which, as they were still occupied in their domestic wars, he refused to grant: they were then compelled to consent purely and simply to the renewal; but they vowed vengeance at a future period, as policy, enlightened in that age, taught them that, so long as the Moors were suffered to domineer in any portion of the country, their subjects of the frontier could know neither security nor peace.* In 884, on the death of don Juan II., king of Aragon, Fernando succeeded to that throne; and the two powerful states of Aragon and Castile were for ever incorporated. This memorable event, by consolidating the peace of the Christians, was the signal for the destruction of the Mohammedan government. Abul Hassan prepared for the approaching storm. In 886, while the Christian sovereigns were putting an end to the troubles raised by the king of Portugal, he suddenly appeared in Andalusia, and arrived before the fortress of Zahara, which he knew was feebly garrisoned. The night was dark, the wind high, and the rain descended in torrents,—circumstances which, by inspiring a fatal security to the inhabitants, were highly favorable to the assailants. They silently scaled the walls, and took possession of the place before the surprised Christians could dream of defence. Having strengthened the fortifications, and con-

* "El rey y la reyna . . . conociendo que ninguna guerra se debia principiar, salvo por la fe y por la seguridad, siempre tuvieron en el animo pensamiento grande de conquistar el reyno de Granada, y lanzar de todas las Españas el señorío de los Moros y el nombre de Mahoma."—*Fernando del Pulgar, Cronica de los Señores Reyes Don Fernando y Doña Isabel*, p. 180.

fided their defence to a numerous garrison, he returned triumphant to Granada. But his joy was of short duration; for the important town of Alhama, one of the bulwarks of the capital itself, though about fifteen leagues distant from it, was surprised and taken, during the night, by a determined band of Christians. The intelligence spread the greatest consternation in Granada. The king hastily assembled a large army, and marched to recover it; but, hearing that Fer-^{A. H.}
nando was advancing to its relief, he as hastily retired. 887.
The complaints, however, of his subjects on the loss of this important place were so great, that he was compelled to invest it a second time. He pushed the operations of the siege with great vigor; but again abandoned them, on receiving the intelligence that a conspiracy to dethrone him was active in the capital.*

On reaching Granada, the king was not surprised to find that the prime movers of the rebellion were his wife, Zoraya, and his son, Abu Abdalla. He confined both in a fortress. But Zoraya, apprehensive for the life of her son, corrupted the keepers, who allowed her women to be introduced. These, by means of their veils and tunics, tied together, let down the prince from the battlements to the foot of the tower, where a number of trusty horsemen were ready to receive him. He was immediately paraded through the city, amidst the cries of "Live the king Abu Abdalla!" and was joined by thousands of partisans. A struggle followed between father and son; both made frequent sorties from their respective fortresses, and inflicted heavy loss on the supporters of each other. The contest, however, turned to the advantage of the rebel. To recall the fidelity of his subjects, by some signal exploit, the king departed to raise the siege of Loxa, which the Christians had invested, and succeeded in forcing their army, which, however, was only 16,000 strong, to retire. On his return, he took and ruined Cañete, and reduced the inhabitants to slavery. But this triumph was counterbalanced by the intelligence that his rebellious son ABU ABDALLA had seized on the Alhambra, and been recognized by the whole population of the capital. He retired to Malaga, which some time before had returned to its obedience; Guadix and Baza also declared for him.

* Fernando Perez de Guzman, *Cronica del Serenissimo Rey Don Juan II.*, *passim*. Hernando del Pulgar, *Cronica de los Señores Reyes Catolicos Don Fernando y Doña Isabel*, parte tercera, cap. i.—vi. p. 180, &c. Santius, *Historia Hispanica*, cap. 41. Lucius Marineus Siculus, *De Rebus Hispaniæ*, lib. xiv. (apud Schottum, tom. i.). Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* (in regnis don Juan II. et Fernando II.). Marmol Carvajal, *Descripcion General de Africa*, tom. i. lib. ii. Condé, by Mariés, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. iii. 297—298.

To relate in detail the various warlike transactions **A. H.** and civil commotions which immediately followed, would **888.** be tedious and uninteresting: a very brief summary must suffice. In two consecutive actions, between isolated detachments of Christians and Moors, the latter had the advantage; but in a third, Abu Abdalla himself, who had advanced as far as Lucena, to share in the war, was defeated and made prisoner. No sooner was his capture known at Granada, than the party of Abul Hassan acquired new strength, and he was enabled to retake possession of his palace and throne. But the treasures of Zoraya were lavished to procure the liberation of her son. As that prince did not scruple to promise king Fernando that he would for ever remain the obedient vassal and tributary of the Castilian crown; as, in proof of his sincerity, he delivered up his son as a hostage, and paid a considerable sum in lieu of arrears of past tribute; and, more than all, as his liberation would perpetuate division among the Moors, and, consequently, further the designs of the Christians, he was soon liberated, and accompanied to Granada by a body of Castilian cavalry. His return, and still more the distribution of his mother's treasures, revived his sinking party, and put him in possession of the Alcazaba, one of the strongest fortresses of the city. The following day the giddy populace were again incited to embrace his cause, to proclaim his name with raving exclamations. The partisans of both father and son rallied their forces; the latter was besieged in the fortress, but at nightfall no decided success could be claimed by either. When the combat was about to be renewed the next day, some of the warriors, dissatisfied with Abul Hassan, because he was infirm with age, and with Abu Abdalla, because he was the ally of the Christians, resolved to exclude both from the throne. The father was easily induced to sacrifice his ambition to the salvation of the state; and by a simple harangue the mob were persuaded to forsake their idol. Who was the prince best fitted to undertake the reins of government in so perilous a crisis? The choice fell on the wali of Malaga, the brother of Abul Hassan, Abdalla el Zagal, a prince of valor and experience, one who had valiantly defended his frontiers against the Christians, and had obtained some advantages over them in the isolated partial contests which continually raged between the two people. The wali immediately hastened to Granada, which he entered with 100 Christian heads hanging from the saddles of his escort. These he had obtained in his passage through the mountains, and they rendered his reception not the less welcome.

889. **ABDALLA EL ZAGAL** was not unqualified for the station to which he was thus unexpectedly raised; but the indi-

viduals in whom that elevation originated must have been blind, indeed, not to perceive that it was a measure which must inevitably add to the existing anarchy. Abu Abdalla had still some determined followers; and as he was in possession of the Albaycin, one of the best fortified places of the capital, he showed no disposition to concede his pretensions to his uncle, any more than he had shown it to his father. In vain did the less-ambitious or more prudent uncle propose the division of the supreme authority, that both might turn their combined forces against the invaders. As compromise was impossible, each endeavored to fortify his pretensions by alliances,—the former with the walis of Almeria and Guadix, the latter with the Christians. Fernando naturally espoused the cause of his vassal, to whom he dispatched some troops: he next took the field in person, under the pretext of succoring Abu Abdalla. He besieged and took Alora and Setenil, and defeated the Moors in two partial engagements. The slowness, however, of his operations, and the caution which he observed in every enterprise, proved that he was not without apprehension lest the two parties should combine, and render his future success, if not questionable, at least tardy. It was not until he had secured, by successive well-timed sieges, some of the chief fortresses to the north and west of the capital, that he assumed a bolder tone and a more decisive policy. In 890, he caused Ronda, Marbella, Cahir, Cartama, &c. to be invested at the same time. On the reduction of these important places, Moclin, Velez-Malaga, and Loxa, were besieged. The inhabitants of the capital now took the alarm: they perceived that, if these towns were taken, little would be left them in that direction beyond their own ramparts; and they urged their two kings, whose mutual hostility continued undiminished, to suspend their shameful contentions, and arrest the progress of the Christians. Both reluctantly obeyed. Abdalla el ^{A. H.} Zagal hastened to relieve Moclin, and succeeded; but at 891. Velez-Malaga, the siege of which he also endeavored to raise, he was utterly defeated, and compelled to retreat. On his return to Granada, however, the inhabitants, incensed at his failure, refused to admit him, and he retired to Guadix. Nor did better fate attend Abu Abdalla, who, having thrown himself into Loxa, was constrained to capitulate.* Though his

* Fulgar mentions an English nobleman, who, with 100 horsemen, rendered good service to king Fernando in this war. In the assault on Loxa, the English hero made terrific havoc among the Moors; but he received several slight wounds, and lost two of his teeth. After the battle, Isabel sent him a magnificent present, and Fernando visited him in his tent. In reply to the condolence of his majesty, the nobleman—

“Daba gracias á Dios y á la gloriosa Virgen su Madre, porque se veia visitado del mas poderoso rey de toda la Cristiandad, y que recibia su graciosa

excuses for taking up arms against his liege superior were frivolous, he was allowed to revisit his capital, where he now might indulge the hope of reigning without a rival. But that capital was almost the whole of his kingdom; for Almeria, Guadix, and Baza acknowledged his uncle, while the Christians successively obtained possession of the fortresses they had invested or summoned. About thirty surrendered at one time, and attained the same honorable conditions as Loxa.

The conquest or capitulation of all the fortified places in its neighborhood had isolated the important city of 892. Malaga, the possession of which now became the great object of the Castilians. The wali of the place, a kinsman of El Zagal, had foreseen the storm, and prepared for it, by hiring auxiliaries from Africa, and laying in considerable supplies of provisions; the population, too, was very numerous, and animated by hatred of the Christian name. Hence the siege continued for some months to baffle the efforts of king Fernando in person, and even of queen Isabel, who repaired to the camp of her husband with the determination of remaining there until the city owned their joint sway. During the siege fanaticism aimed at reviving the Mohammedan cause by the attempted assassination of the two sovereigns. A Moor, Abrahen Algerbi by name, had left Tunis, his native country, to settle in a village near Guadix. The successes of the Christians had wrought this man to the very height of frenzy; so that he taught, and perhaps believed, that he was commissioned by Heaven to raise the siege of Malaga. He pretended to great sanctity, and to frequent revelations from above. The gravity of his deportment, and the austerity of his life, made a great impression in his neighborhood, where he was regarded as a saint. At length 400 resolute men having prepared to aid him in the object of his mission, he set out for Malaga. Two hundred of them succeeded in gaining the city; the remainder, who ventured to attack the Christian outposts, were cut to pieces. Algerbi himself was with the latter division; but, instead of fighting, he retired a short distance from the scene of strife, and fell down on his knees to pray. In that posture he was found by the Christians, and brought before one of their generals. To such questions as were asked him he refused to give any other reply, than that he had an important communication for the king and queen, which he would not deliver to any other persons. As the king had just dined, and was laid down to sleep, and as the queen refused to see the stranger alone, the Moor

consolacion por los dientes aque habia perdido; nunque no reputaba mucho perder dos dientes en servicio de aqueque gelos habia dado todos."

This nobleman is called the *Conde de Escalas*, or *Escalay*. Query—the earl of Calais?

was introduced into a tent near that of Fernando, in which were a Portuguese nobleman and two ladies. From the magnificent dresses of these persons, he concluded that he was in the royal tent, and that Fernando and Isabel were before him. He instantly drew a poniard, inflicted a mortal wound on the cavalier, and had almost effected the destruction of the principal lady, when one of the queen's treasurers entered and disarmed him. Other Castilians immediately repaired to the tent, and the assassin fell beneath their swords. His mangled body was thrown over the walls; and notwithstanding the failure of his enterprise, his remains were reverently washed and interred by the besieged. The submission of the city soon followed this fruitless effort of fanaticism. There is, however, some difference between the accounts of the Moors and Christians as to the chief result. The latter say, that the place surrendered unconditionally, and that Isabel honorably distinguished herself by interceding for the inhabitants, who were allowed to retain their property, to remain or retire where they pleased; while the former assert, that the Christian troops were introduced through the treachery of a Moor, and that the place was delivered up to pillage.*

The western fortresses of the kingdom being in the power of the Christians, Fernando had now two plans before him for attaining his great object: he could either at once fall on the capital, or begin with the reduction of the eastern strong-holds. He chose the latter; he knew that, if he triumphed over Abdalla el Zagal, who possessed Guadix, Baza, Almeria, Vera, &c., he should have little difficulty in dethroning the fallen Abu Abdalla. Velez el Rubio, Vera, Mujacar, &c. opened their gates on the first summons. But the Christians failed before Huescar, Baza, and Taberna; and had the worst in more than one skirmish. In 894, Fernando again hastened to the field at the head of 50,000 foot, and 12,000 horse, resolved with this formidable force to deprive the Moors of all hopes of a successful resistance. Under the pretence that his arms were to be directed against only the enemy of his ally, he hoped to divide still further the Moorish power. He succeeded in his purpose: the people of Granada looked on, not indeed with indifference, but certainly without much anxiety for themselves, while their ally marched

* Authorities: Hernando del Pulgar, Zurita, Marmul, Carvajal, Lucius Marineus Siculus; Blancas (Rerum Aragonensium Commentarii); Tarapha, De Regibus Hispaniæ (apud Schottum, tom. i. et iii.); and Condé, by Mariés. The truth is, that the *strangers* (the Africans, &c. whom the inhabitants had engaged as auxiliaries) were made slaves; and such even of the inhabitants as had obstinately opposed the surrender of the city were expelled from it. As usual, the mosques were immediately purified, and converted into Christian temples.

against the places which still held for El Zagal. Abu Abdalla, however, was aware of the result: he even purchased a temporary security, by consenting not only to abandon his uncle, but to receive into Granada itself a Christian garrison; in other words, to deliver that capital, after the destruction of El Zagal, into the hands of Fernando. In return, he was to receive ample domains, under the title of vassalage from his feudal superior. Though the conditions of the alliance were secret, El Zagal, convinced that he should now have to encounter the whole power of the Castilians, prepared for a vigorous defence. His kinsman, the cid Yahia, with 10,000 men, he sent to Baza, which he rightly judged would be one of the first places to be invested by Fernando.

895. Having reduced Xucar, the Christian monarch, as had been foreseen, laid siege to Baza. This place, which was situated on the declivity of a hill; which was strong alike by nature and art, and defended by a powerful garrison; made a brave resistance during several months: but in the end, seeing that the provisions were exhausted, and many of the soldiers cut off in the frequent sorties; that the Christians had intrenched their camp, and were even encouraged to persevere by the arrival of queen Isabel; Yahia wrote to El Zagal to say that the place must inevitably be surrendered unless speedily succored. The latter, who was busily occupied in the defence of Guadix, could not spare a single soldier for the relief of Baza: it was therefore constrained to capitulate; but conditions highly advantageous to the people were obtained from the two sovereigns. Yahia, who had several interviews with these sovereigns in their own camp, received signal proofs of their favor: the unsolicited grant of some rich domains, as an indemnification for the loss of his government, and the winning behavior of the queen, are said to have made so deep an impression on his mind, that he vowed not only never again to take up arms against his liege superior, but to embrace their religion, and even to prevail on his kinsman El Zagal to discontinue a fruitless resistance, and submit as he had done. That such resistance must be eventually vain; that it would only defer the inevitable hour of submission, and by exasperating the enemy it must harden the conditions of final surrender; were truths too evident to be disputed; and Yahia might, therefore, be held blameless for his conduct on this occasion. He represented to El Zagal, that Heaven, by unexpectedly uniting the two crowns of Castile and Aragon, had decreed that a third, the crown of Granada, should ornament the same brows; that fate was resistless, and prompt submission was the only path remaining to avoid either slavery or expulsion. Like a true Mussulman, El Zagal coincided in his kinsman's doc-

trine of predestination; he acknowledged that "Allah in his eternal decrees had resolved the destruction of Granada;" and he consented to throw himself on the generosity of Fernando. He too hastened to the Christian camp; and if personal kindness, or even regal liberality, could have atoned for the loss of a throne, he might have been satisfied. Like Yahia, he received ample domains, to be for ever possessed by his descendants,* on his consenting to receive Christian garrisons into Almeria and Guadix, the inhabitants of which were guaranteed in all their privileges as subjects. Purchena, Taberna, Almuñecar, Salobrena, and some other towns of the Alpujarras, were eager to follow the example of Baza; so that the once proud kingdom of the Moors was almost literally confined to the walls of the capital.

Nothing now remained but to complete the overthrow of the Moorish power by the conquest of Granada. In ^{A. H.} 896. the virtue of the preceding convention, Fernando summoned Abu Abdalla to receive a Castilian garrison. The poor shadow of a king in vain appealed to the magnanimity of his ally, whom he besought to remain satisfied with the rich spoils already acquired. The bare mention of such a proposal would have cost him his head, in the then excited state of feeling. The disastrous position of Mohammedan affairs, which they imputed, not without some justice, to his ambition and his subsequent inactivity, aroused their wrath so much, that they rose against him, and would doubtless have been satisfied with nothing less than his blood, had he not precipitately fled into the Alhambra. Ere long, however, the violence of the commotion ceased, as every one perceived the necessity of combining to save the capital. Its fate was for a time suspended by the arrival of numerous volunteers from the neighboring towns, especially from the villages of the Alpujarras, which had not yet acknowledged the Christian sway; and from several other places, which now openly revolted. Abu Abdalla endeavored to regain the good-will of his people by vigorously preparing for their defence, and even by making incursions on the new possessions of the Christians. But neither the revolt nor his own efforts were of much avail. The inhabitants of Adra were signally punished for their want of faith; the king was compelled to seek shelter within his walls, from the summit of which he soon perceived the advancing cross of his enemies.†

* The jurisdiction of Andaraz; the valley of Alhaman, containing 2000 vassals (between Malaga and Marbella); and half the produce of some salt mines: the annual return was four millions of maravedis. The following year Abdalla el Zagal, tired, perhaps, of living privately where he had ruled as a king, sold most of these possessions, and retired to Africa.

† Pulgar, *Cronica de los Señores Reyes Catolicos Don Fernando y Doña Isabel*, p. 300, &c. Zurita, *Historia del Rey Hernando el Catolico*, tom. ii.

897. In the spring of 897 (A. D. 1491,) Fernando invested this great city with 50,000 foot and 10,000 horse. That the siege would be long and bloody was to be expected from the strength of the fortifications, and the fanaticism of the people. Some time, indeed, elapsed before the place could be effectually invested; convoys of provisions were frequently received, in spite of Fernando's vigilance; and in the sorties which from time to time took place, the advantage was not always on the side of the assailants. These partial actions so thinned the Christian host, that the king at length forbade them; and to protect his camp against the daring irruptions of the Moors, he surrounded it with thick walls and deep ditches. The enemy now saw that he was resolute in the reduction of the place, however tardy that reduction might prove. In despair at this politic expedient, Muza, the Moorish general, a man of great valor and ability, persuaded his followers to join him in storming the Christian intrenchments. But the Christians did not wait to be stormed: no sooner did they comprehend the purpose of the advancing army, than they left their strong-hold to meet it. The space between the camp and the city-walls now became the scene of a fearful struggle, which ended in the utter rout of the Mussulmans. To confine them within their fortifications was not enough for Fernando: he resolved to cut them off from all communication with the mountains whence their sustenance was derived, and patiently await the inevitable effect of famine. Having laid waste several leagues of the country, he placed detachments in all the passes which led to the city. His own soldiers, whether in the camp or in the newly-erected city of Santa Fé,* which he built and fortified both as a security against the possible despair of the Moors, and for the greater comfort of his army and court, were abundantly supplied with every necessary. The privations to which they were now subject, caused the besieged inhabitants first to murmur, and next to threaten their imbecile ruler with destruction. In this emergency, Abu Abdalla hastily summoned a council, to hear the sentiments of his chief subjects on the deplorable posture of affairs. All agreed that the camp, the city, and policy of Fernando, were but too indicative of his unalterable determination, and of the fate which ultimately, nay soon, awaited them; that the people were worn out by abstinence and fatigue; and that, as the necessity was imperative, an attempt should be made to procure favorable terms of capitulation from

Marmol Carvajal, *Historia del Rebelion y Castigo de los Moriscos del Reyno de Granada*, tom. i. lib. i. cap. 12. Condé, by Mariés, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. iii. 353—367.

* About two leagues west of Granada.

the Castilian. The hagib, Abul Cassem, a venerable old man, proceeded to the Christian camp; and on the 22d day of Muharram, 897,* the following conditions, among others, were agreed on between him and the commissioners of Fernando:—That the city should be surrendered in two months, unless relieved in the interim; that the Moorish king, his wasirs and sheiks, should swear allegiance to the two sovereigns, and that all the inhabitants should transfer their homage from Abu Abdalla to the victors; that Abu Abdalla should be provided with domains and estates sufficient to support him in becoming splendor; that every Mussulman should have entire liberty, and preserve their present property; that they should be allowed the free exercise of their religion, their mosques, their *alfaquis*,† and even their own laws and judges; that during three years they should be exempted from the contributions towards the support of the state, and that afterwards they should be subject to the same taxes only as they had paid to their own kings; and that they should deliver up five hundred hostages for the faithful performance of these stipulations.‡ These conditions were laid by Abul Cassem before the council of Abu Abdalla, and were regarded with mournful solemnity. Many of the members were naturally and deeply affected at the prospect before them. Muza advised them rather to perish than to surrender; and seeing his expostulations unavailing, he left the hall of deliberation, took his horse and arms, issued from the gate Elvira, and was heard of no more. After his departure, Abu Abdalla said, "It is not courage that we want, but the means of resistance; ill fate has shed its baneful influence over the kingdom, and has unnerved us all. What resource is left us? The storm has destroyed all!" The justice of the royal complaint was acknowledged by all except the lowest populace, whose fanaticism would probably have buried the city in ruins, had not the king, with the advice of his sheiks, entreated Fernando to take possession of the city somewhat earlier than had been stipulated—an entreaty to which the Castilian king lent a willing ear.

It was on the fourth day of the moon Rabia I.,‡ at the dawn

* A. H. 897 opens November 3. 1491: hence November 25.

† *Fak et fekehat*, l'étude et la science de la loi, la jurisprudence; *fakih*, un docteur, de la loi, ou, si vous voulez, un jurisconsulte. C'est d'où vient le mot Espagnol *alfaqú*.—*D'Herbelot*.

‡ The conditions may be seen at length in Marmol Carvajal, *Historia del Rebelion y Castigo de los Moriscos*, tom. i.

§ Which year opens, as before observed, November 3. 1491:—

Muharram	30	November	26
Safir	29	December	31
Rabia I.	4	January	4
	63		63

Hence January 4. 1492.

of day, that Abu Abdalla sent his family and treasures into the Alpujarras, while he himself, accompanied by fifty horsemen, rode out to meet Fernando, whom he saluted as his liege lord. The keys of the city were delivered to the latter by Abul Cassem: the Christians entered, and their standards were speedily hoisted on the towers of the Alhambra, and all the fortresses in the place. The fourth day following, Fernando and his royal consort made a solemn entry into the city, which they made the seat of an archbishopric, and in which they abode several months. In what manner they observed the conditions of its surrender will be seen in the next section. As for the feeble Abu Abdalla, he had not courage to re-enter it. As he disconsolately took the road to the Alpujarras, and from time to time cast back his weeping eyes on the magnificent towers behind him, his mother, the sultana Zorayda, is said to have observed, "Thy womanly tears for the loss of thy kingdom become one who had not courage to defend it like a man!" He did not long remain in Spain. Like his uncle, he sold his domains, and retired to Africa, where he died in battle, defending the throne of his kinsman the king of Fez.* Two princes of the family, Yahia and his son, remained in the Peninsula, where they embraced the Christian religion, and were laden with honors and wealth by their new sovereign.

SECTION II.

CHRISTIAN SPAIN. 718—1516.

CHAP. I.

THE ASTURIAS, LEON, AND CASTILE. 718—1516.

1. *The Asturias and Leon.* 718—1037.

711 THE more zealous or more independent Christians,
to who, after the triumphs of Tarik and Musa, were dis-
718. satisfied with the submission of Theodomir,† gradually
forsook their habitations in the south to seek a more se-
cure asylum amidst the northern mountains of their country.
They knew that in the same hills the sacred fire of liberty had
been preserved, in defiance of Carthaginian, or Roman, or
Goth; and they felt that to them was now confided the duty
of reviving its expiring embers. At first, indeed, the number

* "Escarnio y gran ridiculo de la fortuna, que acació la muerte á este rey en defensa de reyno ageno, no ha habiendo osado morir defendiendo el suyo."—*Marmol Carvajal*. But Abdalla, however criminally ambitious and weak, was no coward.

† See Vol. I. p. 157.

which resorted to these solitudes was few, and actuated by the mere hope of individual safety: but as the Mohammedan excesses became more frequent and intolerable; as neither prompt submission, nor the solemnity of treaties, could guarantee the unhappy natives from plunder, persecution, and destruction;* and, consequently, as the number of refugees increased, the possibility of a combined defence on a larger scale, and even of laying the foundation of an infant state, was eagerly indulged. The care of the sacred relics, which, on the reduction of Toledo, were carefully conveyed to these mountain fastnesses—the presence not only of prelates, but of nobles descended from the blood of the Goths—that devotion to a good cause, that sense of duty, which adversity never fails to elevate and to confirm—and the necessity of self-preservation,—united these refugees in an indissoluble bond. Well and nobly had they fought for their country and altars on the plain of Xeres; well and nobly, and, as they hoped, with more success, were they determined to fight for their mountain-home and their banished faith. But they could do nothing without a head: they proceeded to elect one; and their unanimous suffrage fell on PELAYO, said to be the son of Favila duke of Cantabria,† belonging to the royal house of Chindaswind, to whom they intrusted the defence of all that was dear to them—their liberty and their religion.‡

At the time this unequivocal demonstration of defiance was made by the Christians, Alhaur, the Mohammedan governor, was in Gaul; but one of his generals, Alxaman, accompanied, as we are informed, by the renegade archbishop Oppas, and obedient to his orders, assembled a considerable force, and hastened into the Asturias, to crush the rising insurrection. Arriving at the foot of the Asturian mountains without obstacle, the Arabian general did not hesitate to plunge into the defiles: passing along the valley of Cangas, he came to the foot of Mount Auseva, near the river

718

to

737.

* The archbishop Rodrigo draws a worse view of the desolation of Spain than even Isidore of Beja (as before quoted, vol. i. p. 162.): "Children are dashed on the ground, young men beheaded; their fathers fall in battle; the old men massacred, the women reserved for greater misfortune." He tells us, that "every cathedral in Spain was burned or destroyed;" that "the national substance, &c. was plundered, except what the bishops could save in the Asturias;" that "the cities which were too strong to be stormed immediately, were deluded into a surrender;" that "oaths and treaties were uniformly broken by the Arabs," &c. Both he and Isidore may exaggerate, but the exaggeration only proves the fact.

† The monk of Albelda (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, xiii. 450.) calls Pelayo the son of Bermudo, and nephew of king Roderic. His origin is wrapped in much obscurity.

‡ "Tunc Pelagium sibi, filium quondam Favilani Ducis, ex semine regio, principem elegerunt; et arcam cum senatorum pignoribus quam in Asturiis, simul transtulerunt, ei præcipue ad defensionem tradiderunt."—*Sebastianus Salmanticensis*. See Appendix B.

Sella.* On the heights of Covadunga, and in the cavern of St. Mary, the small but resolute band of Pelayo was concealed, waiting for the attack. Loth to run the risk of one where the advantage of position was so much in favor of the Christians, Alxaman is said to have dispatched Oppas to Pelayo, representing to that prince the inutility of resistance, and the advantage of instant submission. The refusal of the Asturian, who well knew his position, and what stout hearts he commanded, was followed by the ascent of the Arabs up the steep acclivity. But their consternation could be equalled only by their surprise when huge rocks and stones came thundering down on their dense ranks, by which they were precipitated into the narrow valley below. The destruction did not end here: it met those who attempted to ascend the opposite acclivity. Thousands were crushed beneath the vast fragments; and the rest would speedily have shared the same fate, had they not precipitately fled by the way they had advanced. The confusion attending this retrograde movement was turned to good account by the Christians, who now issued from their hiding-places, and inflicted a terrific loss on the fugitives. The extent of that loss we should vainly attempt to estimate;† but that it was great may be learned from the very admission of the vanquished,‡ and that it inspired them with a terror which rendered them unwilling to resume their incursion into this fatal region, may be inferred from their subsequent inactivity. Alxaman was slain at the head of one division of the Moors; while his colleague Suleyman, who commanded another, shared the same fate. Oppas, too, is said to have been taken prisoner, and justly put to death for his treachery.§ This was splendid success; but it was almost equalled by the defeat of Manuza. This chief, who was then governor of a northern city,|| hearing

* The grotto of Our Lady of Covadunga is about twelve English miles from the Bay of Biscay.

† "In eodem namque loco centum viginti quatuor millia Caldeorum sunt interfecti," are the words of Sebastian. Ferreras (ii. 454., Hermilly's translation) evidently suspects a gross exaggeration on the part of some transcriber. Most of his countrymen, however, will allow of none. Probably the *centum* has been added; and even then the loss of the Mohammedans would be sufficiently great.

‡ "Eo duce (Alxaman) bellum adversus Christianos susceptum est, sed infausito exitu; quippe is *ingente clade* affectus, fugâ saluti consuluit; ejus vero collega Solimanus ben Schahabus cum maxima exercitus parte occubuit, anno scilicet Egiræ 139, die 2 Rabii posterioris."—*Abu Bakir, Festis Serica* (apud Casiri, Bibliotheca Arab. Hisp. ii. 33.). There must be an error in this date, which need not surprise us in an author of the 13th century (Abu Bakir died in A. H. 658.). See Appendix C.

§ We know not why Pellicer and Masdeu should doubt the presence of this apostate in the Asturias, except, indeed, as it opposes their arbitrary chronology.

|| Most MSS. have *Gegio*, now Gijon, which lies on the Cantabrian Sea; but there is some difficulty in believing that the Moors penetrated so far northwards. The *placé*, says Sebastian, was in the Asturias; but so was Leon (*Legio*), in ancient times. What makes the uncertainty still stronger

of the disastrous defeat of his countrymen, and apprehensive that the enemy would soon be upon him, ordered his troops to retreat; but he was overtaken, defeated, and slain by the Asturian hero. These memorable events fixed the destiny of the infant kingdom: they were the first of a succession of triumphs, which, though sometimes tardy, and often neutralized by accident, ended in the final expulsion of the invaders from the Peninsula. The Asturias were now left in the undisturbed possession of the Christians, nor were the Mohammedans for some years in any disposition to assail their formidable neighbors.*

The results of these victories were highly favorable to the Christians, who began (in the Asturias) to found towns, to repair such as had suffered, and to cultivate the ground with hope. The remainder of Pelayo's reign is unknown: it was probably passed in peace.† He died in 737, and was buried in the church of St. Eulalia, at Congas de Onís. This hero is entitled to the grateful reverence of posterity. His patriotism, his valor, his religious fervor, must have been unrivalled, or he would scarcely have ventured, with a mere handful of men, to stem the torrent of Mohammedan invasion. Above all, he appears to great advantage when contrasted with Theodomir, who, however amiable in private life, and even courageous in the battle-field, cannot escape our censure for tamely submitting to the hateful and despicable yoke of the Arabs.‡

is the fact, that Olalia, where Manuza was overtaken and defeated, may either be the valley of that name, near Oviedo, or a town south of Leon, and not far from Astorga. Possibly, however, it was Gijón. Yet Leon, according to the chronicle of Albelda, had a governor named Manuza, who appears to be the same with Othman ben Abineza; but he was slain, not by the Christians, but by the orders of the emir Abderahman. There must surely have been two of the name, or the Christian chroniclers have irretrievably confounded events, persons, and dates.

* We find so much confusion, so much contradiction, sometimes so much improbability, in the obscure authorities for this period, whether Arabic or Christian, that we almost despair of forming a rational connected narrative of the reign of Pelayo. Where authorities are at variance, reason should indeed decide; but it is sometimes impossible to say which hypothesis is most reasonable, or rather least unreasonable. Almost every sentence of the preceding paragraph in the text ought to commence with "probably," "it is said," "it is believed," &c. We will not attempt to fix the exact years when the above victories were won, nor what space of time elapsed between them: it is sufficient that they took place in the reign of Pelayo; viz. between 718 and 737.

† Rodrigo of Toledo is the only one who says that Pelayo won other battles; but as he does not tell us when or where, and as none are mentioned by preceding historians, we may safely reject them. The misbelievers had received too good a lesson to resume hostilities, and it is not likely that the Asturias could be strong enough to invade either Leon or Galicia.

‡ Sebastianus Salmanticensis Chronicon (apud Florez, España Sagrada, xiii. 481.). Monachi Albeldensis Chronicon (apud eundem, xiii. 450.). Monachi Silensis Chronicon (apud eundem, xvii. 281-284.). Ximenes, Rerum in Hispania Gestarum, lib. iv. cap. 2. Lucas Tudensis, Chronicon Mundi, lib. iv. (apud Schottum, Hispania Illustrata, tom. ii. et iv.). Alonso el Sabio,

737 Of FAVILA, the son and successor of Pelayo, nothing
to is known beyond his brief reign and tragical death. In
739. to 739, he was killed by a boar, while hunting in the neigh-
borhood of the church of the Holy Cross, which he had
founded.*

739 ALFONSO I., surnamed the *Catholic*, a son-in-law of
to Pelayo, descended, we are told, from Leovigild, was the
757. next prince on whom the suffrages of the Asturians fell:
not that Favila left no children; but they were doubtless
of tender age, and therefore unfitted for bearing so heavy a
burden as the duties of monarchy in times so critical.† Be-
sides, among these rude mountaineers, hereditary right seems
to have been as much unknown as among their Gothic fath-
ers; the crown, however, was always confined to the same
family, and the election was generally sure to fall on the next
prince in succession, provided he was not disqualified for the
dignity either by age, or impotence of body or of mind.‡

Though no record remains of Alfonso's battles with the
Arabs, it is certain that he must have been victor in several;
for he made ample additions to his territories. Lugo, Orense,
and Tuy, in Galicia; Braga, Oporto, Viseo, and Chaves, in
Lusitania; Leon, Astorga, Simancas, Zamora, Salamanca, and
Ledesma, in the kingdom of Leon; Avila, Sepulveda, Segovia,
Osma, Coruña del Conde, Lara, and Saldaña in Castile;
—these, and many other places of less note, were reduced by
him. It appears, however, that he acted with cruelty towards

Cronica de España, part iii. cap. 2. Abu Bakir, *Vestis Serica* (apud Casiri, ii. 33.). Condé, as spoiled by Marles, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. tom. i. passim. D'Herbelot, *Bibliothèque Orientale*, art. Mousa, &c.

* "On the spot where Favila was killed, a monastery, called *San Pedro de Villanueva*, was built by Alfonso I. On the door of the church belonging to this monastery is a rude representation of the last scenes of Favila's life. In one part there is a horseman in mail, with a helmet on his head and a hunting spear in his hand, and a lady endeavoring to detain him. In another part, finding that he was not to be detained, she is kissing him, as if to bid him adieu. In the third, there is the horseman with his sword run through the body of a boar; and at the same time the animal is grasping the shield with its fore feet, and with open mouth aiming at him. Representations nearly similar, though not of equal antiquity, are to be found sculptured in other churches of the Asturias and of Navarre."—*Sandoval, Notes to the Historias de los Cinco Obispos*, p. 95.

As the ministry and church were erected by the immediate successor of Favila, at the entreaty of the princess Hermesinda, daughter of Pelayo, and wife of Alfonso I., it may be admitted as conveying a correct account of that prince's untimely end.—See *Morales, Cronica General*, tom. iv. fol. 15, 16.

† "A la verdad, en las circunstancias en que se hallaba aquel reyno, la corona real tenia mas espinas que diamantes."—*Ortiz*, iii. 17.

‡ Mariana says, that Alfonso inherited in virtue of Pelayo's will. This is one of the assertions so common in this writer, without the shadow of a foundation. Equally unfounded is the assertion that he inherited in right of his wife, Hermesinda, though that circumstance would doubtless have some weight with the electors. His best claim was, that "in tempore Egicani et Witizani regum, principes militie fuit."—*Sebastien*.

the Mohammedan inhabitants, whom he exterminated to make room for his Christian colonists.* Such cruelty, indeed, was just retribution on the heads of the followers of a sanguinary faith; but posterity must grieve to see the laurels of the hero stained with blood unnecessarily shed. Biscay, too, and Navarre, obeyed Alfonso; so that his kingdom extended from the western shores of Galicia into Aragon, and from the Cantabrian sea to the southern boundary of the Tierra de Campos; that is, over about one fourth of all Spain. To account for the rapidity and extent of these conquests—conquests, however, which for the most part were frequently lost and regained in succeeding wars, and few of which he himself retained—the reader has only to remember the civil dissensions of Mohammedan Spain some years prior to the accession of the caliph Abderahman.

But Alfonso was not merely a conqueror: the colonies which he established, the towns which he founded or restored, the churches which he built or repaired, are justly adduced as signal monuments of his patriotism and religious zeal. Hence the appellation of *Catholic*—an appellation which continues at the present day to distinguish his successors. His end, which happened in 757, corresponded with his life.†

FRUELA I., the eldest son of Alfonso, is represented as stern in disposition, as cruel in his habits, and valiant in war. Of his valor, however, so far are the Arabian writers from making mention, that they represent him as the tributary of their king Abderahman.‡ On the contrary, the early Christian chroniclers speak of a battle in which 54,000 of the Mohammedans fell; the general, Omar, son of Abderahman, being, say they, among the prisoners, was put to death by the victor. As no mention is made of such a son

* "*Omnem quoque Arabes occupatores supradictarum civitatum interfectionem.*"—*Ibid.*

† That a man who "sine offensione erga Deum et ecclesiam vitam merito mirabilem duxit," should depart this world with hope, may be readily supposed; but we are required to believe that at the moment of departure, a choir of angels announced his approaching glory: "*Nec hoc stupendum miraculum,*" says a chronicler, "*prætermittendum est, quod hora discessionis ejus certissimè actum est. Nam cum spiritum emisisset in tempeste noctis silentio, et cum servi pallatini diligentissime corpus illius observassent, subito in ætra auditur à cunctis excubantibus vox angelorum psallentium, Ecce quomodo tollitur justus, et nemo considerat; et viri justi tolluntur, et nemo percipit corde: et facie iniquitatis sublatum est justus, et erit in pace sepultura ejus.* (Isaiah, chap. lvii.) And as if afraid that there would be people heretical enough to demur at assenting to the prodigy, he adds:—"Hoc verum esse prorsus cognoscite, nec fabulosum dictum putetis: alioquin tacere magis eligerem quàm falsa promere maluisse." Not a single historian of Spain, from bishop Sebastian to Masdeu and Ortiz, has ventured to express his disbelief of the miracle!

‡ See Vol. I. page 225.

by Mohammedan writers, nor of any battle between the armies of the two princes, and as the powerful Abderahman was not likely to leave unavenged so heavy a calamity, doubts may reasonably be entertained of the alleged fact.

The harsh character of Fruela, joined perhaps to the natural inconstancy of man, led to a revolt in Galicia and Biscay;* but he succeeded in repressing both, and he inflicted a heavy punishment on the rebels. The man, indeed, who with his own hands shed the blood of an innocent brother, was not likely to spare guilty subjects. But in the end, finding his yoke intolerable, or perhaps resolved no longer to obey a fratricide, his people rose and slew him, after a reign of somewhat more than eleven years, in A. D. 768. He was buried in the rising city of Oviedo, in which he had founded a church in honor of our Savior, and which he is believed to have had some share in amplifying.†

768 Of AURELIO, the cousin‡ and successor of Fruela,
to nothing is known, but that, according to the Christian
774 writers, he lived in peace with the Moors; and that,
after a struggle, he reduced to obedience the slaves and freedmen who had revolted against their lords. But the Mohammedans will not allow that he thus remained unmolested by their great king Abderahman. They assert, that, on his endeavoring to evade the tribute covenanted with Fruela, he was at least twice defeated by two Arabian generals, and that he esteemed himself fortunate in being able to procure peace on the same condition of vassalage. Though, for reasons before assigned,‡ doubts may well be entertained of the genuineness of this treaty, it is not unreasonable to suppose, that in the infancy of their power the Asturian kings might be sometimes constrained to pay tribute to those of Cordova, but for their possessions in *Leon and Galicia* only. These lay constantly open to the irruptions of the Moslems, while the *Asturias* were protected by their natural strength. Hence, the writers of both nations may be right,—the Mohammedans in asserting that tribute was once paid to their kings, and the Christians in vindicating their ancient independence; the king might be as free in the Asturias as he was fettered in his southern and western provinces.—As little is known of SILO, son-in-law of Alfonso I., and brother of Aurelio, who was

* In the latter of these places he made captive a beautiful lady, whom he afterwards married, and by whom he had a son, Alfonso the Chaste.

† Authorities the same as those last quoted. Fruela is praised by modern historians of Spain, from Rodrigo of Toledo to Mariana, for enforcing clerical celibacy, and thereby repairing the ruinous laxity of Witiza's law. In vain should we seek a foundation for such a statement in authors nearest to the times.

‡ Nephew of Alfonso I.

§ See Vol. I. page 226.

elected king in 774. That he continued at peace with the Arabs is certain, but on what terms is doubtful; the dark expression in the monk of Albelda, that Spain enjoyed peace with the Moors through his mother (*Spania ab causam matris pacem habuit*) would lead us to infer that there was some closer relation between the royal families of the two nations than is generally supposed. In his reign, as in that of Fruela, the Galicians revolted, and were reduced to obedience. But the most memorable event of this period is the arrival of Charlemagne, whose invasion, dubious alike in its pretensions and result, has been sufficiently exposed on a former occasion. Silo died in 783.*

MAUREGATO, the bastard son of Alfonso I., who usurped the crown to the prejudice of his nephew Alfonso, son of Fruela, would also descend almost unnoticed to posterity, were it not for the famous tribute ascribed to him. Despairing of a successful opposition to the party of the young prince, he is said to have triumphed by the aid of Abderahman; and that either through gratitude, or in compliance with the demand of his ally, he agreed to pay thenceforth an annual tribute—not of money, or horses, or arms, but—of a hundred damsels (all to be distinguished for beauty) to ornament the harems of the misbelievers. His memory, however, does not deserve to be charged with so odious a stain; first, because no mention whatever is made of such a tribute by the Mohammedan writers, nor by the Christian prior to Rodrigo of Toledo;† and next, because it would have been difficult, perhaps impossible, to furnish that number annually of *beautiful* maidens from dominions so bounded and so thinly peopled as those which obeyed the early Asturian kings.‡ Probably, however, as we collect from an author contemporary with Rodrigo, don Lucas of Tuy, the two sovereigns might agree to encourage marriages between their respective subjects; a policy which Abderahman is known to

* Sebastianus Salmanticensis, necnon Monachi Albeldensis Chronica (apud Florez, España Sagrada, xiii. 483—451.). Rodericus Toletanus, Rerum in Hispania Gestarum, lib. iv.; et Lucas Tudensis, Chronicon Mundi, lib. iv. (apud Schottum, Hispania Illustrata, tom. ii. et iv.). Alonso el Sabio, Cronica de España, part. iii. cap. 6. Condé, as spoiled by Marlés, Histoire de la Domination, &c. tom. i. (reign of Abderahman).

Sebastian tells us, that this king went to Merida, and forcibly brought away the remains of St. Eulalia, which he placed in his newly-erected church of St. John the Evangelist at Pravia. For the monasteries founded in the same reign, the reader may see Yepes, Cronica General de San Benito, tom. iii.; and Sandoval, Cinco Obispos (notes.)

† "The tribute of the hundred virgins is neither inconsistent with Mohammedan manners, nor in itself improbable."—*Southey's Cid*, p. 377. Granted; but history must look to authority, in preference to probability without it.

‡ The Asturian women are very ugly.

have followed. But in either case, the usurper would well deserve the ill repute in which his name is mentioned by posterity.*

788 On the death of Mauregato, in 788, BERMUDO I. was
to elected to the throne. The nobles who were known to
791. have been concerned in the murder of Fruela, were
naturally desirous to exclude Alfonso, in the apprehension that he would seek to revenge that deed of darkness. Bermudo, too, the nephew of Alfonso the Catholic, was the only remaining prince of the race of Recared; and though in holy orders, and averse to the regal office, it was not only forced on him, but he was in a manner constrained to marry. He did not long exercise it: whether through disgust with the dignity, or through a conviction that it would be better filled by his nephew, or, more probably, from conscientious scruples, he resolved to separate from his wife, and to abdicate in favor of that prince. He had little difficulty in persuading his nobles to acknowledge Alfonso; as the mild disposition of the latter seemed to them a sufficient guarantee that revenge would be sacrificed to policy.†

791 ALFONSO II., better known as *Alfonso the Chaste*, be-
to gan to reign in 791. That he was not unworthy the par-
842. tiality of his uncle, or the affection of his people, appears both from the victories he obtained over the Mohammedans,‡ and from his patriotic rule. Yet he was doomed to experience the ordinary ingratitude of men; for, not long after his accession, he was forcibly seized, and confined in a monastery; not by a small party, but by a formidable army of rebels. That confinement, however, appears to have been of short duration; some of his faithful vassals hastened to his retreat, and brought him in triumph to Oviedo, where he established his court. That city, which now became the capital of his kingdom, he enlarged and embellished: many of the edifices erected by him were distinguished for equal magnificence and extent. The church of San Salvador, in particular, which occupied thirty years in building, is a well-known and justly admired monument of his taste and religious zeal.

Though the reign of Alfonso exceeded fifty years in duration, it contains very little to strike the attention, if we except his wars with the Mohammedans. This surname of the

* There is a pun on the occasion of his burial at Pravia, where he always held his court: "Como fue pravo (wicked), en Pravia fue sepultado."—*Ferreras*.

† Bermudo is said by the monk of Albelda to have been at war with the Arabs; but as this is the only Christian authority for the statement, and as no mention of such a war is made by the Mohammedans themselves, it may be regarded as at least doubtful.

‡ See Vol. I. p. 228.

Chaste has procured him great veneration; so much, indeed, that his want of canonization seems to have surprised not a few of his countrymen. Whether his continence arose from mistaken piety or from natural causes, is not worth the trouble of inquiring.* The national writers, however, from Rodrigo of Toledo downwards, agree that his sister Ximena had not received the same gift; that she clandestinely married with Sancho, count of Saldaña; and that the issue of this marriage was the famous Bernardo del Carpio, whose exploits form so prominent a portion of fabulous history. Not only those exploits, but this hero himself, and his two parents, are creations of the imagination.†

In 842, RAMIRO I., son of king Bermudo the Deacon, was elected successor to Alfonso. As at the time of his election the prince happened to be absent on a matrimonial excursion, one Nepotiano, an Asturian count, and a kinsman of the deceased king, aspired to the crown. Ramiro hastened to vindicate his right; his competitor also collected followers; a battle ensued, to the favor of the rightful sovereign; Nepotiano fled, was overtaken, deprived of his eyes, and shut up in a monastery. This was not the only rebel who troubled the repose of Ramiro. A few years after his accession, Aldrete, a count of the palace, formed a dangerous conspiracy against him; but a seasonable discovery of the plot enabled him to dissipate it, and to consign the former to the same dark solitude as Nepotiano.

This king was no less successful against his foreign than his domestic enemies. The Scandinavian vikingur, after ravaging the coasts of France, appeared before Gijon, in the Asturias; but finding the place too well defended to be assailed with impunity, they proceeded round the coast to Coruña. There they landed, and committed their usual atrocities, until the Asturian king hastened to oppose them. Being defeated by him, and seventy of their vessels burnt, they proceeded onwards, doubled Cape St. Vincent, and, as already related, inflicted heavy mischief on the Mohammedan possessions of the south. By Sebastian of Salamanca, he is said to have been twice victorious also over the Saracens,—a circumstance, however, of which not the slightest intimation is given by the Mohammedan writers. One of these, the famous victory of Clavijo, is notoriously fabulous.‡

ORDONO I., son of the deceased king, ascended the Astu-

* By Lucas Tudensis the king is said to have been betrothed, if not married, to a French princess; but he never even saw her.

† See Appendix D.

‡ Authorities: the chronicles in Florez, Roderic of Toledo, Lucas of Tuy, and Alonso el Sabio. For this celebrated fable, see Appendix E.

850 rian throne at an early age. One of his first objects
 was to fortify his frontier places against the incursions
 to of the Mohammedans, and to repeople such as had lain
 866 waste since the time of Alfonso I. Leon, Amaya, Astor-
 ga, and Tuy were among the number. In his frequent con-
 tests with the enemy, he was almost uniformly successful.
 For most of his successes he was, doubtless, indebted to the
 dissensions of Muza and Omar, who rebelled against the king
 of Cordova, and obtained possession of Saragossa, Huesca,
 Tudela, and even Toledo. Not satisfied with defeating the
 forces of his lawful sovereign, Muza turned his arms against
 Ordoño. Near Albelda the rebel was signally defeated by
 the Christian king; the greater part of his army was destroy-
 ed; his treasures were lost; his son-in-law fell before his
 eyes; and he himself, almost dead of his wounds, had great
 difficulty in escaping. Albelda, too, which Muza had fortified,
 was speedily reduced. No sooner was his defeat known at
 Toledo, than his son, the governor of that important place,
 declared himself the vassal of the Asturian. Ordoño, at the
 close of his reign, was undisturbed master of the whole coun-
 try, from the Bay of Biscay to Salamanca.

Under Ordoño the Normans again landed on the Galician coast; but being defeated by count Pedro, governor of the province, they proceeded to the more fertile towns of Andalusia: their devastations have been already recorded.*

866 ALFONSO III., the eldest son of the deceased Ordoño,
 ascended the throne in in 866. The beginning of his
 to reign, like that of some of his predecessors, was troubled
 872 through the curse of an elective government. His king-
 dom was invaded, and his throne was seized by a count of
 Galicia; and he was even compelled to flee into Alava. By
 the senate of Oviedo, however, the usurper was assassinated,
 and the rightful monarch triumphantly escorted to his capital.
 With equal success did he crush the rebellion of a count of
 Alava, who stimulated the people of that province to revolt.
 He was no less fortunate in escaping from the assassin's dag-
 ger, which even within the precincts of his palace was
 whetted to drink his blood: the discovery and death of the
 conspirators struck a salutary fear into the other factions.

During the late reigns, the people of Navarre had been among the most frequent to revolt: they were in all cases instigated by the Franks, who constantly aspired to a permanent settlement south of the Pyrenees, and who were anxious to repair the ill success of their arms under their great emperor and his descendants. Since the time Charlemagne had hero-

* See Vol. I. page 235.

ically destroyed the fortifications of Christian Pampeluna, the Carolingian race had regarded the whole of Navarre as their rightful heritage, and labored, often with success, to procure the homage of the local governors. To chastise both count and people was a constant task for the Asturian kings; but Alfonso, finding that these domestic contests distracted his attention from the war with the Mohammedans, adopted an expedient which he hoped would both tranquillize the people and preserve his dominion over them. On the Frank count 873. of Bigorre, Sancho Iñigo, who had estates on both sides the Pyrenees, and who, as the creature of France, had distinguished himself both in stimulating the inhabitants to revolt, and in the wars which ensued in consequence—who, besides, was exceedingly popular in that province—in 873 he either conferred Navarre, or consented that it should be held, as an hereditary fief, dependent—whether on the crown of the Asturias, or on that of France, has been much disputed.* He hoped, we are told, that the new sovereign would prove a bulwark against the aggressions, both of France on the one side, and of the Arabs on the other. To strengthen the connexion between himself and the new count, he demanded the hand of the princess Sumena, who was related both to Sancho Iñigo and the French king. That he was deceived in his hope will surprise no one. Admitting that the count was his vassal, he must indeed have been short-sighted, not to perceive that the foreigner would throw off the yoke on the first favorable opportunity; and that, aided by the French court, the rebel might safely defy the Asturian kings.

But Alfonso's victories over the Mohammedans almost atoned for his imprudent policy with regard to Navarre, 870
—if, indeed, that policy was not the compulsory result to
of circumstances. To those victories allusion has been 901.
already made; and it is here only necessary to add, that he removed the boundary of his dominions from the Duero to the Guadiana, and that the territories thus acquired were possessed by his successors above a century, until the time of the great Almanzor. From 870 to 901, his contests with the enemy,—whether with the kings of Cordova or their rebellious vassals, who aimed at independence, were one continued series of success. His last exploit at this period was the destruction, in the battle of Zamora, of a formidable army, led by the rebel Calib of Toledo, whose ally, Abul Cassem, fell on the field.

* The origin of the sovereignty of Navarre is one of the most disputed points in the history of Spain. It shall be examined more at length when we come to the particular history of that kingdom.

907 But this great prince, if glorious in his contests with
 to the natural enemy, was unable to contend with his re-
 910 bellious barons, headed by his still more rebellious son
 Garcia. Aided by his father-in-law, Nuño Fernandez,
 one of the counts of Castile; by his brother Ordoño, the gov-
 ernor of Galicia; by many other nobles; and even, as we are
 told, by his own mother; the prince formed the unnatural de-
 sign of dethroning his aged father. He was, however, seized
 by a detachment of the royal troops, and confined to a fortress,
 where he was forced to remain three years. In vain did the
 count Nuño and his guilty accomplices endeavor to procure
 the rebel's enlargement by artful appeals to the pity of the in-
 dignant monarch, and by interesting the queen in the same
 cause: Alfonso showed a proper firmness in supporting his
 own rights and the public tranquillity. Seeing that entreaty
 was of no avail, the disaffected, at length, had recourse to a
 more effectual expedient. By representing the prince as treat-
 ed with great rigor in his confinement, and the father as an
 implacable tyrant, whose indignation against his son should
 long since have ceased, they easily prevailed on the multitude
 to arm in defence of their future sovereign. At the prospect
 of a civil war, the king no longer wished to uphold his just
 rights. Having convoked an assembly at Bordes, in the As-
 turias, in 910, he solemnly renounced the crown in favor of
 don Garcia, who passed at once from a prison to a throne.
 To his second son, Ordoño, he granted the government of
 Galicia; and another, Fruela, he confirmed in that of Oviedo.
 These concessions were, doubtless, extorted from him,—a fact
 that does not speak much for the firmness of his domestic ad-
 ministration: he appears, like many other princes of his coun-
 try, to have been great chiefly in the field of battle.

910. Alfonso did not long survive his abdication. Having
 paid a visit to the shrine of Santiago in Galicia, on his
 return to Astorga, he solicited permission and adequate forces
 from his son to make a final irruption into the Mohammedan
 territories. Both were granted; and in laying waste the pos-
 sessions of the enemy, he had the consolation of reflecting,
 that he had done great service to the church, and left another
 signal remembrance of his valor, before his departure. He died
 at Zamora, at the close of the year 910; leaving behind him
 the reputation of one of the most valiant, magnanimous, and
 pious sovereigns that Spain ever produced.*

* Sebastianus Salmanticensis, necnon Sampirus Astoricensis, *Historie* (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, xiii. 487, &c. et xiv. 438, &c.). Monachi Silensis, necnon Monachi Abdeldensis *Chronica* (apud eundem, xvii. 290, &c. et xiii. 454, &c.). Rodericus Toletanus, *Rerum in Hispania Gestarum*, lib. iv. cap. 15—20. Lucas Tudensis, *Chronicon Mundi*, lib. iv. p. 79, &c. (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. ii. et iv.). Alonso el Sabio,

Of GARCIA, the successor of Alfonso III., little more is known than that he transferred the seat of sovereignty from Oviedo to Leon; made a successful irruption into the territories of the misbelievers; and died in 914. The nobles and bishops of the kingdom—henceforth called the kingdom of Leon—having met, according to custom, for the purpose of nominating a successor, placed the royal crown on the head of Ordoño, brother of the deceased Garcia.

ORDOÑO II., under the reigns both of his father and brother, had distinguished himself against the Mohammedans; and he resolved that no one should say his head was weakened by a crown.* In 917 he advanced towards the Guadiana, stormed the town of Alhange, which is above Merida, put the garrison to the sword, made the women and children captives, and gained abundant spoil. The inhabitants of Merida† were so terrified with the fate of their neighbors, that they hastened to the camp of the victor, and by entreaties, still more by rich presents, prevailed on him to spare that city. With the wealth thus acquired he founded the magnificent cathedral of Leon. In a subsequent expedition he ruined Talavera, and defeated a Mohammedan army near its walls. Indignant at these disasters, Abderahman III. assembled a powerful army, not only from all parts of Mohammedan Spain, but from Africa; but this immense host was also defeated, under the walls of San Pedro de Gormaz. In a subsequent battle, however, which appears to have been fought the same year in Galicia, victory declared for neither party. Nearly three years afterwards (in 921), Ordoño was entirely defeated in the battle of Val de Junquera, whither he had advanced to aid the king of Navarre, and where two of his prelates (Dulcidio of Salamanca, and Hermogio of Tuy), were made prisoners. He took his revenge for this disaster by an irruption into Andalusia, which he laid waste from the Navas de Tolosa to within a day's journey of Cordova.‡

Chronica de España, part ii. cap. 12, &c. *Marca Limes, Hispanicus*, lib. iii. cap. 17, &c. Favyn, *Histoire de Navarre*, liv. ii. p. 53, &c. Moret, *Anales de Navarra*, tom. i. lib. 7. et 8. Masdeu, *Historia Civil de la España Árabe*, xii. 143—184. Also the *Fragments of Casiri*, passim; and Condé, by Marlés, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. i. 341, &c.

* "Do you think my head weakened by wearing a crown?"—*Sobieski to his soldiers*.

† The modern histories of Spain say, that at the same time Badajoz also sent its deputies to the camp of Ordoño. This is a strange interpretation of the passage in the *Chronicle of Silos*;—"Cui (Ordono) omnes emeritenses cum rege eorum Badalioz, civitate obviam exierunt."—The error was exposed by Masdeu in 1793; yet, in 1796, Ortiz, who appears to have compiled a history of his country without so much as consulting that critical writer, records it for the twentieth time. Such carelessness is inexcusable.

‡ In the history of Mohammedan Spain (sect. i. chap. 1.), we have scarcely mentioned the wars of Ordoño with the king of Cordova; not finding

921 Soon after his return to Leon, the king committed a
 to rigorous but treacherous act of justice. Four counts of
 923. Castile, whom he suspected of disaffection, and who, by
 their criminal inactivity, had led to the disgrace at Val
 de Junquera, he invited, under some specious pretext, to ap-
 pear before him at Burgos. They refused: he returned to
 Leon, and collected troops to chastise their disobedience; but,
 instead of marching against them, he repeated his summons.
 Alarmed at his preparations, they reluctantly obeyed, and re-
 paired to his palace on the banks of the Carrion, near Tejarea.
 On their arrival they were seized, were forwarded to the pris-
 ons of Leon, and, probably in violation of his royal word, in a
 few days were put to death.* The news of this tragic event
 armed the inhabitants of Najera and Vecaria, both dependent
 on the four counts, or allied with them, against the king; but
 they were soon compelled to surrender at discretion.

Ordoño did not long survive the triumph over his rebellious
 subjects. He died in 923, immediately after his third marriage
 with a princess of Navarre.

923 FRUELA II., brother of Ordoño, was elected in prefer-
 to ence to the children of the deceased king—probably be-
 925. cause they were too young to be intrusted with the cares
 of government. Of him we know little more than that
 he died after a reign of fourteen months; and that his prema-
 ture death was considered by the chroniclers as a righteous
 punishment for his banishing, without cause, the bishop of
 Leon, and persecuting, with fatal malignity, two innocent
 brothers of that prelate. The cause of his enmity was the
 zeal which these persons had shown in favor of Alfonso, the
 eldest son of Ordoño.

925 ALFONSO IV., who succeeded, in 925, in preference to
 to the sons of Fruela II., is represented as a prince more
 930. addicted to piety than to ambition. In the sixth year of
 his reign, he renounced the vanities of the world, resigned
 the sceptre into the hands of his brother Ramiro, and retired
 into the monastery of Sahagun. The following year, however,
 he forsook his cell, and, with a considerable force, hastened to
 Leon to reclaim the throne. He was there invested by his

any account of them in the Fragments of Oasiri. They are, however, so
 explicitly and positively related by the bishop of Astorga and the monk of
 Silos,—the former almost contemporary,—that we cannot hesitate to re-
 ceive them, especially as they are confirmed by the epitaph of this king
 (preserved in Risco, *España Sagrada*, xxxiv. 481.). The Arabian writers
 seem to have confounded the events of Ordoño's reign with those of Ramiro
 II.

† Most historians, from Rodrigo of Toledo downwards, have represented
 these counts as *murdered*,—as put to death without the shadow of justice:
 “*Erant ei rebelles*”—the very words of Sampiro—convey a very different
 meaning.

brother, who compelled him to surrender, and who again consigned him to his monastery, with three princes (the sons of Fruela II.) his counsellors. In accordance with the laws of the Wisigoths, the punishment of death was commuted to all four by the loss of their eyes. Alfonso survived his misfortune about two years and a half.

RAMIRO II., who ascended the throne in 930, is chiefly distinguished for his wars with the misbelievers,—wars ⁹³⁰ which have been already noticed as far as they could be ^{to} discriminated amidst the conflicting accounts of the two ⁹⁵⁰ nations. One of his victories, that of Simancas, fought in 939, seems, in many of its circumstances, to be the same as the one gained at Clavijo by Ramiro I.: the two have, beyond all doubt, been confounded; and it is no less undoubted, that the circumstances are a pure creation of the chroniclers. That Ramiro II. gained a considerable advantage over Abderahman III. on this occasion at Simancas, cannot reasonably be denied, since it rests on the testimony, however exaggerated, of the bishop of Astorga, who might have conversed with individuals actually present. Common report, which magnifies every thing, and tradition, which is fond of the miraculous, easily confounded the exploits of the two Ramiros, and invested them with the wonderful veil that—fortunately for the honor of Santiago and the interests of his church of Compostella—now covers them.*

Like most of his predecessors, Ramiro had also to struggle with internal discord. The dependent count of Castile, Fernan Gonzalez, and one Diego Nunez, a count also in the same province, for reasons with which history (however communicative romance may be) does not acquaint us, revolted against him. There is reason to infer that they had no wish to escape from the homage which they owed to their liege lord, but that they were averse to another campaign against the Mohammedans, from a conviction that the country, after its past exertions, required rest. However this be, the incensed king marched against them, seized their persons, and confined them in two separate fortresses. His displeasure was not of long duration: he suffered the counts to resume their offices on their taking the usual oaths of obedience; and he even married his eldest son, Ordoño, to Urraca, daughter of Fernan Gonzalez. To that son, on the vigil of the Epiphany, in the year 950, he resigned the crown: his growing illness convinced him that he had not long to live; he therefore assumed the penitential garb, and passed his few remaining days in religious retirement.†

* See the reign of Abderahman III. in Vol. I.; and Appendix E. to the present volume.

† Sampirus Astoricensis, p. 448, necnon Chronicon Lusitanum, p. 403.

950 ORDOÑO III. had scarcely ascended the throne before
 to he was troubled by the ambitious projects of his younger
 955. brother, don Sancho. That prince, wishing to share the
 sweets of power, modestly requested that the govern-
 ment of one or two provinces might be confided to him; and
 on the refusal of the king,* he persuaded Garcia of Navarre,
 and the count of Castile, to espouse his interests. That Fernan
 Gonzalez, the father-in-law of the rightful sovereign, whose
 forfeited life had been spared by the generosity of that sove-
 reign's father, should thus conspire against Ordoño, proves the
 infamy of his character: neither gratitude nor oaths had any
 influence over this unprincipled governor. But on this occa-
 sion treason and perjury met with deserved failure: Sancho
 and the count, at the head of the Castilians and Navarrese, in
 vain invaded the territories of Leon; they found Ordoño so
 well prepared to receive them, that they retreated without
 risking a single battle. Incensed at this conduct of his vassal,
 the king repudiated his wife Urraca, and immediately married
 Elvira, a lady connected with the chief families of Leon.†
 Fernan Gonzalez was now compelled to bow the knee before
 him. With equal success did he triumph over the Galicians,
 who, for reasons which the meager chroniclers of the time
 never dream of communicating, openly rebelled. He died in
 955.

955 SANCHE I., surnamed from his corpulency the *Fat*,
 to now arrived at the summit of his ambition. But by the
 967. retributive justice of Heaven he was doomed to bear,
 and in a still heavier degree, the burden of anxiety
 which he had laid on his brother and predecessor. Aided by
 the restless count of Castile, whose daughter, the divorced Ur-
 raca, he had married, Ordoño, son of Alfonso IV., aspired to
 the throne. Despairing of success by open arms, the two
 rebels artfully seduced the troops of Sancho from their alle-
 giance, and persuaded them to join the intruder. This unex-

(apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, tom. xiv.). *Chronicon Silense*, p. 303, &c. (apud eundem, xvii.). *Chronicon Burgense*, p. 308. (apud eundem, xxiii.). *Annales Complutenses* in eodem, p. 311.). *Annales Compostellani* (in eodem, p. 318.). *Chronicon Compostellanum* (in eodem p. 326.). *Ximenes, Rerum in Hispania Gestarum, necnon Lucas Tudensis, Chronicon Mundi* (apud Schottum, ubi supra). *Alonso el Sabio, Chronicon de España*, part ii. cap. 13, &c.; with many others.

* The contemporary bishop Sampiro assigns no reason for Sancho's rebellion; and though later historians ought not to have much weight where preceding ones are silent, probability strongly supports the former in the case before us.

† Was there no prelate at hand bold enough to prevent this act of bigamy? The church seems to have allowed extraordinary indulgence to the kings of Leon. Masdeu appears inclined to doubt the second marriage, as resting on authority comparatively modern,—from archbishop Rodrigo downwards. The passage containing it, however, is in most MSS. of Sampiro, who wrote about 983.

pected event deprived the king of the means of resistance, compelled him to flee secretly for his life, and raised Ordoño to a precarious dignity.

The exiled Sancho sought the aid of his maternal uncle, the king of Navarre. But instead of an army to regain his rightful possessions, he received the consoling admonition that he ought to submit with patience to the dispensations of Heaven; and that if he could not regain his kingdom, he might at least rid himself of his excessive corpulency, with which he appears to have been seriously inconvenienced. As no Christian leech could be found skilful enough to effect the change, and as the physicians of Cordova were renowned over all Europe, he wrote to Abderahman III. for permission to visit that capital. It was readily granted: Sancho was courteously received and magnificently entertained by the caliph; by the juice of certain herbs, in a short time he was effectually rid of his cumbrous mass of flesh, and restored to his former lightness and agility.*

But this was not the only advantage which Sancho derived from his residence in the court of the caliph. He so won the favor of Abderahman and the Moslem chiefs, that they wished to restore him. At the head of his new allies the king returned to Leon, and was everywhere received with open arms. The tyranny of the intruder had rendered him obnoxious, his cowardice made him contemptible, to the people. Instead of striking a decisive blow for empire, he fled into the Asturias as the successes of Sancho increased. But even the Asturias did not long afford him a safe asylum, and he fled to Burgos, the residence of his father-in-law. As fortune had deserted him, so also did his nearest friends. With the view of disarming the just resentment of Sancho, the count of Castile not only abandoned the fugitive Ordoño, but deprived him of his wife and children; and the citizens refused to admit him within the gates. In utter hopelessness of aid from any of his former subjects, he retired into the Mohammedan territories, where he ended his days in misery.† The restored king did not long survive his good fortune. In an expedition against Gonsalo Sanchez, count of Galicia, who aspired to render that government independent of Leon, he was poisoned under the mask of hospitality by that perfidious rebel, after a troubled reign of twelve years.‡

* "*Ipsi Agareni herbam attulerunt, et crassitudinem ejus abstulerunt à ventre ejus, et ad pristinam levitatis astutiam reductus.*" &c.—*Sampiro*. It is a pity the Mohammedan doctors—non *inconsulte loquor*—did not leave the prescription behind them.

† "*Ordonius vivens inter Sarracenos mansit, et elulando panas persolvit.*" says *Sampiro*, with his usual obscurity.

‡ One of the last acts of Sancho was to procure from Alhakem, the successor of Abderahman, the remains of the martyr Pelayo, who suffered in the

967. As RAMIRO III. was only five years of age on the death of his father, his education fell to the care of his to aunt doña Elvira, abbess of the convent of San Salvador, 962. who also appears to have been regent of the kingdom. His minority offers little that is interesting, if we except a predatory irruption of the Normans, who, early in 968, one year after his accession, landed in Galicia, advanced towards Compostella, defeated and slew Sismondo bishop of that see, laid waste the whole of that province, with a considerable portion of Leon, and during two successive years committed their usual depredations, with, as appears, perfect impunity. That such indifference or cowardice should so long be shown by the natives of Galicia, and that the warlike nobles of the kingdom should not have hastened to drive their piratical invaders into the sea, may well surprise us. But in Galicia, as in Normandy, where the famous Rollo had founded a new sovereignty, these sons of the deep inspired a fear which paralyzed every exertion, and sought for safety only in a base flight. At length the count of the province, having assembled a considerable force, almost exterminated these daring pirates, with their leader Gundered; released the captives, recovered their lost substance, and destroyed the whole fleet, consisting of one hundred vessels.*

As Ramiro grew in years, the qualities which he exhibited augured any thing but good to his people. Rash, presumptuous, self-sufficient, and haughty in his behavior to his wisest counsellors, he became so odious to the nation, that the counts of Castile, Leon, and Galicia threw off their allegiance to him, and proclaimed in Compostella prince Bermudo, grandson of Fruela II. Ramiro immediately assembled an army, and marched against his rival, whom he encountered near Monteroso in Galicia, in 982. The contest, though long and bloody was indecisive; so that both kings, afraid of renewing it, retired to their respective courts—Ramiro to Leon, and Bermudo to Santiago. The calamities arising from this civil strife were

persecution at Cordova. Pelayo will be more particularly mentioned in the proper place—the concluding chapter of the present book.

Sancho, if the Chronicle of Iria is to be believed, had the misfortune to be consigned to purgatory. "One Sunday," says the legend, "as the queen Teresa was in prayer, her deceased husband appeared to her, surrounded with flames, and exhorted her to continue her prayers and good works. Uneasy at his fate, she presented one of the priests with a surplice, charging the ecclesiastic to pray for his soul. Not long afterwards, Sancho appeared to her a second time, clad in the identical surplice, and thanked her for her zeal. As she tried to embrace him, he vanished; but left in her hand a piece of the surplice; and on inspecting the garment, it was found wanting." Who, after this, it is triumphantly asked, can doubt of the efficacy of almsgiving for the dead? The priest was no bungler.

* We must again refer the reader to Depping's interesting work, *Histoire des Expéditions Maritimes des Normands*, for an account of the manners, habits, and exploits of this strange people,—a people little understood by most readers.

increased by the hostile inroads of Almansor, the celebrated hagib of Hixem II.†, who now began a career of unrivalled military splendor, and who was destined to prove the most formidable enemy the Christians had experienced since the time of Tarik and Muza. Fortunately, however, for the distracted state, Ramiro did not long survive his return to Leon: his death again consolidated the regal power.

In the reign of this prince (in 970) died the famous Fernan Gonsalez, count of Castile, whose fruitless efforts after independence have been already noticed. His fame arises not so much from the real as from the romantic exploits with which the fertility of fiction has invested him. Yet, improbable and even fabulous as are most of them, they have been received as indubitable by most native historians, from Alonso the Learned downwards. That he was a native of Burgos; that, by his marriage with the princess Urraca, whom romance calls Sancha, he was brother-in-law to don Garcia the Trembler, king of Navarre; that he was the founder of the sovereignty of Castile, rendering the fief, which had before been reversible, hereditary in his family; and that he acted a most distinguished part in the drama of his time;—are historic facts: but his descent from the fabulous judges of Castile; his wonderful expeditions against the Moors; his adventure after the wild boar, and in the hermit's cave; his imprisonment by the king of Leon, and his escape through the romantic fidelity of his beloved Sancha,—with a multitude of other events equally surprising,—may adorn a poem or a romance; but that they should have found a place in authentic history, may well raise a smile of pity at human credulity.†

As mention has been frequently made of the counts of Castile, and as that government is about to form a conspicuous portion of Spanish history, the subject may be properly introduced here.

Ancient Cantabria, which the writers of the eighth century usually termed Bardulia, and which, at this period, stretched from the Biscayan sea to the Duero, towards the close of the same century began to be called *Castella*—doubtless from the numerous forts erected for the defence of the country by Alfonso I. As the boundaries were gradually removed towards the south, by the victories of the Christians, the same denomination was applied to the new as well as to the former conquests, and the whole continued subject to the same governor, who had subordinate governors dependent on him. Of the first governors or counts, from the period of its conquest by that prince in 760, to the reign of Ordoño I. (a full century), not

* See the exploits of this warrior, Vol. I. p. 253.

† See Appendix F.

even the names are mentioned in the old chroniclers; the first we meet with is that of count Rodrigo, who is known to have possessed the dignity at least six years,—viz. from 860 to 866. He was succeeded by his son Diego, Rodriguez, to whom the writers of the thirteenth century give the surname of *Porcellos*, either because he was believed to be descended from the ancient Roman family of that name, or, because—a far more probable supposition—he was a native of Porcelis, a town in that country. This second count is famed as the founder of Burgos, which he peopled in 882—884. Fable has ascribed the origin of that city to a German adventurer, Nuño Belchides. The third count appears to have been Gonzalo Fernandez, father of the celebrated Fernan Gonzales. The fourth was Nuno Fernandez; probably a brother of Gonzalo. The fifth is Fernan himself, who held the fief from about 932 to 970, and in whom it became hereditary, though nominally, at least, dependent on the crown of Leon. He was succeeded by Garcia Fernandez, the sixth count: the latter (in 995) by his son Sancho Garces; and Sancho Garces, as we shall soon perceive, by Garcia Sanchez, the last count; after whose death the sovereignty became wholly independent of Leon, and passed into the royal house of Navarre, and those sovereigns were styled, not counts, but kings.*

982 BERMUDO II., who, on the death of Ramiro, in 982,
to was acknowledged king of Leon, had little reason to
999. congratulate himself on his elevation, since his reign
was one of the most disastrous in the national annals,—
distracted alike by domestic rebellion and foreign invasion. Of the rebels who embittered his days by openly favoring the frequent invasions of the Mohammedans, three are particularly mentioned in history, Rodrigo Velasquez, Conancio, and Gonzalo Bermudez. The first, who was governor of Galicia, offended at the just deposition of his son, the bishop of Santiago, by the king, openly joined the misbelievers, whom he caused to lay waste the whole of that province, with the holy precincts of Santiago. The second, by artfully spreading the report of Bermudo's death—then absent to allay some disturbances in

* Sampirus Astoricensis Episcopus, in regno Ranimiri III. (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, xiv. 456.). Monachi Silensis Chronicon (apud eundem, xvii. 305—311.). Ximenes, *Rerum in Hispania Gestarum*, lib. v. c. 9—12., et Lucas Tudensis, *Chronicon Mundi*, lib. iv. c. 84—88. (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. ii. et iv.). Alonso el Sabio, *Cronica de España*, part iii. c. 18—20. To these authorities may be added the anonymous *Chronicon Burgense*, *Annales Complutenses*, *Annales Compostellani*, and the *Anales Toledanos* (apud Florez, tom. xxiii. passim). Favyn, *Histoire de Navarre*, liv. ii. p. 55, &c. Gutierrez, *Historia del Condado de Castilla*, i. 57. Masdeu, *Historia Civil de la España Árabe*, tom. xii. 227—267., tom. xv. *Ilustracion*, 9. et 14. The *Vestis Serica* of Abu Bakir. The *Vestis Acu Picta* of Abu Abdalla (apud Casiri, tom. ii. passim); and Condé, by Mariés, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. tom. i. passim.

the western provinces—gave rise to the most bitter factions in the capital, which did not end without much bloodshed. The third, who commanded the castle of Luna, openly rebelled, collected the seditious to his standard, and declared his intention of dethroning Bermudo. If the king partially triumphed over these commotions, he had little success with the fierce Almansor, who laid waste the greater part of his kingdom, entered his very capital, and forced him to seek refuge in the heart of the Asturias. He died in 999.* His character is drawn in very different colors by the ancient chroniclers. The monk of Silos represents him as judicious and prudent, as tempering justice with mercy, as pious and charitable, as restoring the Wisigothic laws of Wamba, and as exhibiting, even in the most painful fits of the gout—and from his constant subjection to that complaint he is generally known as Bermudo the *Gouty*—the most determined valor against the misbelievers. On the other hand, Pelayo, the bishop of Oviedo, calls him imprudent and tyrannical, the persecutor of God's servants, and the most wicked (*nefandissimus*) of princes. But in the instances which this prelate adduces, he betrays at once his malice, his credulity, and his want of information.† On the whole, though he is too favorably treated by the former authority, he may be ranked among the most respectable princes of his age.

In the time of this prince, don Sancho Garces rebelled against his father, don Garcia Fernandez, count of Castile. The result is unknown, as well as whether a reconciliation were effected between them. All that can be certainly collected is, that in 995 the father was defeated and taken prisoner by the Cordovans; that he died of his wounds five days afterwards; and that he was consequently succeeded by don Sancho. The celebrated *infantes de Lara*, of whom there are so many popular ballads in the exhaustless store of Spanish metrical lore, were his kinsmen.‡

ALFONSO V. was only five years of age on the death of his father; and the government was consequently intrusted to a regent. That regency is eventful, from the defeat of Almansor in 1001,—a defeat which not only occasioned the death of that hero, but which was the forerunner of the fall of Cordova. In the dissensions which followed among the candidates for the throne of Hixem, the Christian princes of Spain embraced different sides, as their interests or inclinations dictated. In 1010, Alfonso was imprudent enough to confer the hand of his sister on Mohammed, king of Toledo,

* Such is the date given by the monk of Silos and Pelayo; but the *Anales Comptutenses* assign 1009, the *Anales Toledanos* 1005.

† See Appendix G.

‡ As these *infantes* belong to romance, not to history, we must refer the more curious reader to the Notes in Southey's *Chronicle of the Cid*.

—a prince who was subsequently raised to the throne of Cordova, but was soon deposed and put to death by Hixem.

1010 As the king of Leon grew in years, he endeavored
to repair the disasters which had been occasioned by
1026. the hostile inroads of the Arabs: he rebuilt and re-
peopled his capital, whither the seat of government
was again transferred from Oviedo; he restored both to the
churches and to individuals the property of which they had
been despoiled; and proclaimed some salutary laws for the ob-
servance of the local counts. His good intentions, however,
were not a little thwarted by the rebellion of count Sancho
Garces of Castile, who disdained to acknowledge his authority.
The count, ample as were the possessions of which he usurped
the sovereignty, would probably have been made to submit,
had he and Alfonso lived a few years longer; for the latter,
from the earliest age, exhibited a bold and enterprising spirit.
But in 1021, don Sancho died: his son, don Garcia, a mere
child, succeeded him. This seemed to the king of Leon a
most favorable opportunity for binding Castile closely with his
crown, by a double union between the two houses: his son
Bermudo he proposed to marry with doña Ximena, sister of the
young count, and the count himself with his daughter doña
Sancha; at the same time he offered to confer on his future
son-in-law the title of king. The offer was too tempting to be
rejected: accompanied by his nobles, the count, in 1026, left
Burgos for the court of Leon, where he was received with all
the friendship due to the character he was about to assume.
But amidst the rejoicings consequent on his arrival, he was as-
sassinated by the sons of one count Vela, who had been the
vassals of his father, and who had fled from Castile to Leon,
where they had been kindly received by Alfonso. The con-
sternation of both Castilians and Leonnese, especially of king
and daughter, was only equalled by their thirst for vengeance.
The assassins fled to Monzon, and thence towards the country
of the Mohammedans; but they were overtaken by the king
of Navarre, brother-in-law of the murdered count, who took
and burnt them alive. With don Garcia ended the counts of
Castile,—which was thenceforth to be governed by kings, and
to remain more than two centuries dissevered from Leon.

1026 Alfonso, soon after this tragical catastrophe, carried
his arms into Portugal, and laid siege to Viseo, then
and held by the Mohammedans. One day, however, being so
1027. imprudent as to approach very near to the walls with-
out any defensive armor, he was mortally wounded by an ar-
row from the ramparts, and the siege was in consequence
raised.

Like his father, **BERMUDO III.**, though already married to the

infanta of Castile, was at a tender age on his accession. Of this circumstance advantage was unworthily taken by Sancho el Mayor, king of Navarre, who, not satisfied with assuming the sovereignty of Castile in right of his queen, doña Muna Elvira, the elder sister of the queen of Leon, and daughter of don Garcia, the last count of Castile, made a hostile irruption into the states of his brother-in-law. Having passed the Pisuerga, the western boundary of Castile, he conquered as much of Leon as lay between that river and the Cea. Peace was, however, made on the condition that the king of Leon should confer the hand of his sister, doña Sancha, on don Fernando, one of king Sancho's sons. But this peace appears to have been subsequently broken, doubtless through the ambition of the enterprising Navarrese; for, according to the Complutensian and Toledan Annals, that king in 1034 possessed Astorga, and indeed most of the country as far as Galicia. Yet what need of conquest! As Bermudo continued childless, the wily monarch might safely cherish the hope that the crown of Leon would devolve on the brows of his son in right of the infanta his daughter-in-law.

On the death of Sancho, in 1035, his ample states were thus divided:—To Garcia he left the kingdom of Navarre, the lordship of Biscay (which had been hitherto annexed to Castile, and a part of Rioja; to Fernando he bequeathed the new kingdom of Castile, and the conquests he had made between the Pisuerga and the Cea; to Ramiro fell the states of Aragon, which had hitherto continued a lordship as much dependent on Navarre as Castile on Leon; to another son, Gonzalo, he left Ribagorza, with some forts in Aragon.

This policy could not fail to be followed by fatal results. While Ramiro made war on his brother of Navarre, Fernando I. was summoned to the defence of the conquests which he held beyond the Pisuerga, and which Bermudo resolved again to incorporate with the kingdom of Leon. Aided by some auxiliary troops under his brother Garcia, he encountered Bermudo on the banks of the Carrion. The battle, which was fought in 1037, was sanguinary and long continued; until the king of Leon impatiently spurred his horse into the midst of the hostile squadrons, and fell mortally wounded by the thrust of a lance.

With Bermudo III. ended the male line of the house of Leon. This prince deserved a better fate than that of falling by hostile hands at the premature age of nineteen. The zeal with which he rebuilt churches and monasteries; the valor which he exhibited against the Mohammedans of Portugal, from whom he took several fortresses; the firmness with which, even at that early age, he enforced the administration of jus-

tice; and his affability of disposition,—rendered him deservedly dear to his people.*

2. *Separate Crowns of Leon and Castile.*

1026—1230.

1026 In Castile, the reign of *SANCHO el Mayor*, the first
to sovereign of the new kingdom, began in 1026, and
1037. ended in 1035. Hence, as Fernando grasped the
sceptre early in the latter year, he had reigned some-
what more than two years, when, by the death of Bermudo III.,
in June, 1037, he became, in right of his queen, king also of
Leon.

1037 But *FERNANDO I.*, though he lost no time in marching
to his victorious army to the city of Leon, was not immedi-
1055. ately recognized by the inhabitants of that capital. Their
affection for their deceased king; their resentment to-
wards his victor, especially as that victor was the son of one
whose memory they had little reason to respect; and, still
more, the humiliation of receiving as their master the sovereign
of a country which had until within the last eleven years been
dependent on their rulers;—made them offer for a few days a
courageous resistance. But sober reflection now taught them,
that there was little wisdom in exasperating one whom sooner
or later they must inevitably obey; and they opened their gates
to him. Their ill-will was speedily dissipated by the conde-
scension of his manner, and by the zeal with which he strove
to gain their favor. He confirmed the laws of Alfonso, adding
others equally applicable to the wants and habits of the people:
to render his popularity secure, he fixed his court among them
in preference to Burgos, and in his public decrees always as-
sumed the title of king of Leon before that of Castile. Some
attempts, indeed, to disturb his repose were at first made by
men, who, having so long enjoyed the privilege of rebelling
against their native sovereigns, naturally expected that they
might exercise it with greater impunity under a stranger; but

* *Pelagius Ovetensis Episcopus*, *Chronicon Regum Legionensium* (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, xiv. 466—470, &c.). *Monachi Silensis Chronicon* (apud eundem, xvii. 312.). *Annales Complutenses* (apud eundem, xxiii. 312, &c.). *Chronicon Burgense* (eodem tomo, p. 306.). *Annales Compostellani* (in eodem, 318.). *Chronicon de Cardena*, p. 371. (apud eundem, et in eodem tomo). *Chronicon Conimbricense*, p. 337. (in eodem). *Anales Toledanos*, i. p. 363, &c. (in eodem). Moret, *Anales de Navarra*, tom. i. lib. 8. et 9. *Le-moa*, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. ii. liv. 7. *Rodericus Toletanus*, *Re-rum in Hispania Gestarum*, lib. v. et vi. *Lucas Tudensis*, *Chronicon Mundi*, lib. iv. p. 87—90. (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. iii. et iv.). *Alon-so el Sabio*, *Cronica de España*, part. iii. cap. 21—23. *Favyn*, *Histoire de Navarre*. To these may be added the fragments of Casiri; the *Historia Arabum* of Rodrigo of Toledo; Condé, by Marles; and D'Herbelot, *passim*. The authorities of this period are too numerous to be all cited.

the active monarch triumphed over all opposition: his throne was at length established in the hearts of his subjects.

But if Fernando was freed from domestic troubles, he experienced them from a neighbor and a brother; an inevitable effect of the disastrous policy of his father. His prosperity was envied by the king of Navarre, who, actuated, we are told, by the very demon of ambition, and regardless alike of honor, or faith, or fraternal obligation, formed a design for depriving him, if not of life, at least of sovereignty. In a fit of real or pretended sickness, this latter prince, who had fixed his court at Najera, sent for Fernando, and at the same time enjoined his domestics to seize him during his visit. Fernando did not fail to go; but being warned of his danger by the very creatures of don Garcia, who revolted at the meditated treason, he easily contrived to escape it. Not long afterwards he sent a similar invitation to his elder brother, who, in the view of removing all suspicion as to the past plot, was likewise induced to accept it. On the way don Garcia was arrested and consigned to the castle of Ceya. But the guards, whether bribed by the prisoner, or, as we would fain believe, influenced by a more honorable motive, suffered him to escape. This was a signal for open war between the two brothers; a war which Fernando, however conscious of his own superior power, vainly endeavored to avert by entreaties or remonstrances. At the head of a combined army of Navarrese and Mohammedans, don Garcia, in 1054, invaded Castile: near Burgos, he was

encountered by the king of Leon and Castile. Before the struggle commenced, attempts were made to dissuade the assailant from his unnatural, and hopeless as unnatural, purpose; but not even the affectionate entreaties of his governor in infancy could succeed. Seeing the number of the enemy, and the hopelessness of the contest, the faithful old man,—faithful even unto death,—seized sword and lance, and placed himself in the front of the lines, without shield, or helmet, or breastplate; resolving rather to die than to behold the death of his beloved master.* Here, as the squadrons closed, he received the fate he sought; and, as he had foreseen, it immediately fell on don Garcia, who was pierced to the heart by a lance in the hand of some officer connected with the royal house of Leon,—probably, as the monk of Silos asserts, at the secret instigation of the queen of Leon, doña Sancha.† The army,

* This affecting incident is not mentioned either by the monk of Silos or by Lucas Tudensis; but it is related at length by the archbishop Rodrigo, *De Rebus Hispaniæ*, lib. vi. cap. 10. "Sed ego præmoriar, ne te videam morientem quem tanto studio enutrivì."

† Rodrigo of Toledo (lib. vi. cap. 10. p. 98. ed. Schottus, *Hisp. Illust.* tom. ii.) attributes the death of Garcia to two Navarrese deserters; and the anonymous author of the *Annals of Compostella* (apud Florez, xxiii. 369.) to the jealousy of a soldier, whose wife the king had dishonored.

which had lost its chief, immediately fled. The victor gave orders that the Navarrese should be allowed to retire unmolested, but permitted the vengeance of his soldiers to fall on the Mohammedan auxiliaries. The corpse he buried with royal honors and fraternal regret in the principal church of Najera.*

1055 No sooner had Fernando restored tranquillity to his
to states, than he prepared for the execution of a project
1058. he had long formed,—that of making war on the Mohammedan possessions in Lusitania. In the spring of 1055 he passed the Duero, the Tormes at Salamanca, and entered by way of Almeida. The first place which he reduced was Cea; he next seized, one by one, the fortresses in the vicinity; obtaining great plunder and numerous captives. During the following year he appears to have been inactive; but in 1057 he took the important cities of Viseo and Lamego. The siege of the former was long and troublesome, owing to the excellent archers who defended the place; but its reduction was resolved, both in revenge for the death of king Alfonso, and because its possession was necessary as a point of departure for further conquests. On its fall, Fernando was so mean as to cut off the hands of the archer who, thirty years before, had mortally wounded his father-in-law. Lamego also made an obstinate though short defence, and was visited with some severity. The garrison were massacred; the rest of the inhabitants consigned to slavery and chains. To acquire Coimbra now inflamed his ambition; but previous to undertaking so important a siege, he journeyed to the shrine of Santiago, in Galicia, to gain the intercession, if not the visible help, of that chivalric apostle. He invested the place in January, 1058, (not even the rigors of winter could cool his zeal,) and obtained it by capitulation the following July. He had thus conquered the whole country between the Duero and the Mondego, constituting the greater portion of the modern province of Beira: north of the latter river, not a single fortified place remained dependent on the misbelievers. If the diploma of this king† were genuine, the monks of Lorvam had no little share in the honor of the conquests; since they supplied the besiegers with provisions, at a time when the siege, but for such aid, must have been abandoned. In return, the grateful monarch secured them in the possession of their privileges; not the slightest of which was the confirmation of their exemption

* We suspect that the Castilian writers have somewhat exaggerated the ill-conduct of the king of Navarre. There can be no doubt, however, that he was a tyrannical, rash, and vindictive prince,—qualities which he is even allowed by the Navarrese writers to have possessed.

† Published by Sandoval, *Historia de los Reyes de Castilla* (in regno D Fernandi), fol. 12. This deed looks suspicious.

from contributions, originally granted by Alboacem, Moham-
medan governor of Coimbra, about thirty years after the con-
quest.* The victor, grateful to Santiago, by whose aid he
believed this triumph had been gained, laid magnificent offer-
ings on the altar of that apostle.

The wars of Fernando in other parts were not less
signal. He extended the boundary of Castile from the 1058
Duero almost to the gates of Alcala de Henares; and to
would, no doubt, have taken both that city and even 1063.
Madrid, had not the king of Toledo become his vassal and
paid him tribute. He even carried his hostile irruptions into
Valencia and Andalusia; but derived little advantage from
them, if we except the relics of St. Isidore, which he com-
pelled the king of Seville to surrender to him. In his last ex-
pedition, while under the walls of Valencia he was assailed by
a sickness which he knew would be fatal: he was, therefore,
forced to abandon the siege, and return to Leon.

The last days of this great king were wholly occu- 1065.
pied in extraordinary devotional exercises.† He re-
fused to receive the sacrament in his palace, and, though ex-
hausted by his disease, insisted on being carried to the church
of St. Isidore, where he passed whole hours, both during day
and at midnight, in prayer, and in the ritual observances of his
religion. On the morning of Monday, the 28th day of De-
cember, he caused himself to be arrayed in his royal vestments,
and carried to the church, accompanied by his bishops and ab-
bots, and inferior clergy. Kneeling before the altar of St.
John, and raising his eyes to heaven, he said :—"Thine, O Lord,
is the power, thine the dominion! Thou art the King of kings,
the supreme alike in heaven and on earth! I return unto thee
the crown which thou hast given me, and which I have worn
during thy good pleasure. And now I only ask, that, when

* This famous deed is in another work of the same author, *Historias de los Cinco Obispos* (notas, fol. 87.). It, too, has a suspicious appearance. That the monks should not only be exempted from tribute, but allowed to pass and repass to Coimbra at any time, day or night, without the slightest interruption, seems odd. "Veniant et vadant ad Colimbriam cum libertate, per diem et per noctem, quando melius velint aut nolint." Why grant the Christians—and monks too—a privilege denied to Mussulmans themselves? Such words, too, as *Juzgo*, *Maurus*, &c. smell of a date full two centuries later. Why should *Maurus* be taken, *per synecdochen*, for *Mohammedan*? At this period the *Arabs* were the more numerous, and the only powerful body of the Mussulman population in Spain. The date sufficiently shows the imposture. "Fuit facta carta de Juzgo, era de Christianis 772, secundum vero annos Arabum 147, Lunæ 13 Dulhija." This era, 772, corresponds with A. D. 734; but A. H. 147 does not open until March 9, A. D. 764, or thirty years later. Other objections might be raised no less insuperable; yet, after all, the document is very ancient and curious.

† Fernando was so humble that he often dined with the poor monks of San Facundus. One day, as he was about to drink wine from a glass vessel, he let it fall, and it was broken. He instantly replaced it by one of gold, adorned with precious stones.—*Chron. Silense*.

my soul leaves this body, thou wilt receive it into thy celestial mansion!" His royal crown and mantle were now removed, the penitential habit was thrown over him, and as he lay prostrate on the floor, ashes were scattered on his head. In that posture chiefly he remained, confessing his sins, and imploring the divine mercy, until late in the following day, when he resigned his soul into the hands of his Creator.

Thus died one of the greatest and best princes that ever swayed the Christian sceptre in Spain. His enduring conquests, his zeal for the welfare of his people, his generosity of mind, his care of religion, and his liberality towards its ministers, his charity towards the poor, his humility of deportment, and his piety, cause him to be regarded as a model both for kings and private individuals. Unfortunately, however, in his last testament, he committed the same deplorable error as his father. To Sancho, the eldest of his sons, he left the kingdom of Castile; to Alfonso, the most beloved of his children, those of the Asturias and Leon; and to Garcia, Galicia, which then extended into Lusitania as far as the Duero: his recent conquests were also divided among them according to their contiguity. Nor were his two daughters overlooked: Urraca, the eldest, had the city of Zamora; and Elvira that of Toro; and to both was bequeathed in addition the patronage of several monasteries.*

1065. ALFONSO VI. of Leon, and SANCHE II. of Castile,
to appear to have lived in tranquillity with each other
1071. during two years after their father's death,—a longer
period than might have been expected from their mutual jealousies and their proneness to war. In 1068, Sancho assumed the assailant, and defeated his brother on the banks of the Pisuerga. History leaves us in the dark alike as to the causes and consequences of this warfare: all that is certain is, that a suspension of hostilities followed until 1071, when the brothers again encountered each other near the river Carrion,

* Pelagius Ovetensis, *Chronicon Regum Legionensium* (apud Florez, xiv. 471.). *Monachi Silensis Chronicon* (apud eundem, xvii. 313. &c.). Ximenes, *Rerum in Hispania Gestarum*. lib. vi. cap. 9—12. (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. ii. p. 98, &c.). Lucas Tudensis, *Chronicon Mundi* (apud eundem, tom. iv. p. 92—96.). *Chronicon Burgense* (apud Florez, xxiii. 309.). *Annales Compostellani* (in eodem tomo, p. 319.). *Annales Toledanos* (in eodem tomo, p. 364.). *Chronicon Compostellanum* apud eundem, xx. 326.). *Annales Complutenses* (apud eundem, xxiii. 313.) *Chronicon Conimbricense* (in eodem tomo, 329—337.) *Chronicon Lusitanum* (apud eundem, xiv. 417. &c. Alonso el Sabio, *Cronica de España*, part iii. to the end. Favyn, *Histoire de Navarre*, liv. iii. Moret, *Annales de Navarre*, tom. i. liv. 9.). Zurita, *Annales de Aragon*, tom. i. liv. 1. Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. ii. liv. 7. Masdeu, *Historia Civil de la España Árabe*, xii. 331—336. See also Abu Bakir, *Vestis Serica*; Abu Abdalla, *Vestis Acu Picta*, seu *Regum Almorabitarum Series* (apud Casiri, tom. ii. passim); Ximenes, *Historia*, *Ara-bum*, cap. 46.; and Condé, by Mariés, *Histoire de la Domination*, tom. ii. passim.

at a place called Valpelle.* The battle was obstinate and bloody: it ended in the defeat of the Castilians; but the latter, by surprising the Leonnese in their camp, not only restored the honor of their arms, but almost exterminated the enemy. Alfonso himself was taken prisoner. He is said to have owed his life to the intercession of his sister Urraca; but he was inclosed in the monastery of Sahagun, with a view that he should there be compelled to embrace the ecclesiastical state, and thereby become incapacitated for the crown. Ere long, however, we find him at the court of Toledo: whether he had escaped thither, or been exiled by his brother, is uncertain.

The possession of two states did not satisfy the ambition of Sancho, who, as the eldest son of the late king, aspired to the whole of his kingdom,—to Galicia and Portugal, as well as the cities of Zamora and Toro. In a battle fought at Santarem, he is said to have defeated, and it is added that he afterwards dethroned, don Garcia; but from the obscure, often contradictory, relations of the ancient chroniclers, the probability is, that he allowed his brother to retain possession of the throne, on the condition of homage and tribute. This hypothesis acquires greater weight from the fact, that, on the return of Alfonso from Toledo, Garcia was still in Galicia, and that the latter was dethroned by the former. Whatever might be the issue of this war, Sancho hastened to Zamora, which he invested. The various circumstances with which romance has adorned the relation of this siege may well be omitted.† All that we certainly know is, that in 1072 the king was assassinated before the place by a Castilian knight, Vellido Dolfos,—probably at the instigation of doña Urraca. Thus fell Sancho the Brave, after a reign of near seven years in Castile and two in Leon.

When news of this catastrophe reached Toledo, Alfonso secretly left that capital,—for he was not without his suspicions (probably well grounded), that his departure would be prevented by his host,—and went to Zamora.‡ There, chiefly through the activity of his sister, many thousands resorted—

* Also Golpeliera, Golpellar, Golpejures, Vulpeju, Vulpecularia, &c.

† They may be found in Rodrigo of Toledo, the Chronicle of Alfonso el Sabio, and Mariana, &c. This is the peculiar period of romance: almost every fact is so distorted by it that the truth can be found only in the writers contemporary. See Appendix H. relating to the Cid Roy Diaz de Bivar. To that Appendix we have consigned such historic events as we consider apocryphal,—such, especially, as rest on the authority of the Cid's biographers. For this reason, the text of the present history will sometimes be found more barren of events than most other works on this subject. If we were disposed to admit romance, we could easily be copious.

‡ Here, too, the prelates of Toledo and Tuy, the General Chronicle (Alfonso's), and the Romance of the Cid, may be consulted. We cannot describe the endless improbabilities we encounter. The romance of this period is to be found embodied in Dr. Southey's admirable translation of the Chronicle of the Cid,—a work not more distinguished for its erudition than for its interest.

Leonese, Castilians, and Galicians—to see and acknowledge him. Having taken possession of Leon and Castile, he invited his brother of Galicia, don Garcia, to his court, and immediately confined that prince in the castle of Luna. There the latter passed the remaining years of his life; deprived, indeed, of his liberty, but in other respects treated with royal magnificence.

1073 Undisturbed master of the Asturias, Leon, Galicia,
and Castile, Alfonso was watchful to extend his con-
to quetsa. His first expedition, in 1074, was in defence
1085. of his host, the king of Toledo, against whom the king
of Cordova was advancing. The last-named ruler being ex-
pelled from the territories of Toledo, and pursued even to the
gates of his capital, Alfonso carried his arms into Portugal, re-
duced Coria, and rendered many of the Mohammedan govern-
ors of that country, even south of the Mondego, his tributaries.
But his most important wars were directed against the kingdom
of Toledo (his host had died in the interim within the walls of
Seville). In 1078, he commenced hostilities against Yahia
ben Ismail, and, in the four following years wrested from the
government of that prince most of the cities and towns north
and east of the capital, thus circumscribing the dominions of
Yahia to little more than the walls of Toledo. Of these glori-
ous and enduring conquests, comprising no fewer than twenty
fortified places, so little is said, even by contemporary chroni-
clers, that we have no more than the meager names. In 1083,
he formally invested that important capital, which after a siege
of two years capitulated, as related in the first volume of this
history.* In the following year an archbishop was appointed
to this restored see.

1085 As the other wars of Alfonso with the Mohammedans
to need not be repeated here, there is little during the rest
1109. of his reign to strike the attention. To fortify himself,
however, against the formidable Almoravides,—who at

* Rodrigo of Toledo, (lib. vi. cap. 23.) has some rude verses on the conquests of this prince:—

"Obsedit secreta suum castella Toletum,
Castris sibi septena parans, aditumque recludens.
Rupibus alta licet, amploque situ populosa,
Circumdante Tago, rerum virtute referta:
Victu victa carens, invicto se dedit hosti.
Huic Medina-Colim, Talavera, Conimbria plaudant,
Abulá, Secobia, Salmantica, Publica Septem,
Cauria, Canca, Colar, Iscar, Medina-Canales
Ulmus et Ulmetum, Magerit, Attentia, Ripa
Osuna cum Fluvio-lapidum, Valerancia, Maura,
Acalona, Fita, Consocra, Maqueda, Butracum
Victori sine fine suo modelantur ovantes.
Ildephonse! tui resonant super astra triumphii!"

But many of these places had been previously taken, perhaps not retained, by the father of Alfonso.

this period were annihilating, one by one, the princes of Andalusia, who had signally defeated himself,* and were preparing to push their conquests further towards the north and west,—he connected himself more closely with some French princes, to whom in return he was indebted for some portion of success. To Henry count of Besançon, a near relative of his queen Constance, in 1095 he gave his illegitimate daughter Theresa, with his Lusitanian conquests, extending from Oporto on the Duero to the confines of the Mohammedan kingdom of Badajoz. These conquests, which had before been subject to the governors of Galicia, were to be held as a fief dependent on the crown of Leon; but he must have been blind, indeed, if he hoped that such dependence would always exist. Another daughter, Elvira, by his queen Constance, he gave to Raymond count of Toulouse. Five years before, he had bestowed a third and the eldest of his daughters, Urraca, on Raymond count of Burgundy, with the government of Galicia. These three princes had entered his service at the instance of their liege superior, Philip I. of France.

Alfonso died in 1109. As his only son, don Sancho, 1109. had fallen in battle with the Almoravides, he left to his eldest daughter Urraca, now either widow of Raymond, or very recently married to Alfonso I., king of Aragon and Navarre, the crowns of Leon and Castile; and to their son Alfonso Raymond the lordship of Galicia, as an hereditary fief. The evils arising from this injudicious policy were sure to counterbalance all the good this king ever procured for the country. His great actions, his great qualities, were thus rendered eventually useless to his people. Had his son been spared, the power of his states would have been consolidated, and Christian Spain more able to contend with the formidable Moors. That his want of foresight led to the loss of Portugal, will appear in the sequel: that it did not lead to greater disasters, was owing to no wisdom of his, but to circumstances which fortunately corrected the mischief of his dispositions.

In reading the events of the last two reigns, the reader may have felt some surprise at finding no mention of Rodrigo de Bivar, the famous Cid Campeador, whose exploits form so prominent a place in the Chronicles of Alfonso the Learned, and most subsequent historians of Spain. The cause of omission may soon be explained: those exploits rest on authority so questionable; they are, throughout, so much at variance with genuine history; they are in themselves often so improbable, sometimes so impossible; that, when weighed in the scale, either of historic evidence or of reason, they are lighter than

* See the corresponding period in Chapter II. of Mohammedan Spain.

air, and, perhaps, afford even room for doubt whether such a personage as the Campeador ever existed. As this personage, however, whether real or fabulous, is too important to be dismissed without notice, and as what is believed to be romance should not be confounded with what is known to be true, his character and deeds, like those of his equally famous predecessors, Bernardo del Carpio and Fernando González, shall be consigned to the Appendix.*

1109 URRACA, queen of Castile and Leon, did not long remain even on tolerable terms with her husband, ALFONSO
to
1111. VII, who had been associated with her in the government.—Whether it was owing to her disposition, which was evidently overbearing, and even tyrannical, or to her conduct, which is known to have been imprudent, and is supposed to have been criminal, the two sovereigns soon came to an open misunderstanding. The Castilians naturally espoused the cause of their queen—not so much from attachment to her person, as from hatred of the Aragonese yoke. Alfonso then filled the fortresses of both kingdoms with trusty governors chosen from among his hereditary subjects. This added fuel to the flame of discontent, which burned still more fiercely on hearing that the king had confined doña Urraca in the fortress of Castellar. If any faith is to be placed in Rodrigo of Toledo, who asserts that she had a son by one of her vassals, count don Diego Gomez, whose intrigues with her are confirmed by the contemporary writers of the History of Compostella, the husband had reason enough for this act of rigor. In this retirement, however, she was not so closely guarded that she could not inform her partisans of her situation; a considerable number secretly resorted to Castellar, and bore her back to Burgos. For the first time, she now caused it to be proclaimed that her scruples of conscience would not permit her longer to cohabit with her husband—for Alfonso was her first cousin—which meant, that she either wanted another, or that she was resolved to abandon herself without one to her acknowledged propen-

* See Appendix H. Pelagius Ovetensis, *Chronicon Regum Legionensium* (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, xiv. 472.); Ximenes, *Historia Arabum*, p. 47., *neonon Rerum in Hispania Gestarum*, lib. vi. cap. 13—23. (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. ii. p. 94—105.). Lucas Tudensis, *Chronicon Mundi* (apud eundem, iv. 96—100.). Alonso el Sabio, *Cronica de España*, part. iv. cap. 1—3. *Chronicon Burgense* (apud Florez, xxiii. 309., &c.). *Chronicon Lusitanum* (apud eundem, xiv. 419.). *Chronicon Conimbricense* (apud eundem, xxiii. 338., &c.). *Annales Complutenses* (in eodem tomo, p. 314.) *Chronicon Complutense* (in eodem, p. 316.). *Annales Compostellani* (in eodem, 320., &c.). *Annales Toledanos* (in eodem, p. 383.). *Chronicon de Cardena* (in eodem, p. 372.). Zurita, *Annales de Aragon* (in regno Pedro I.). Favyn, *Histoire de Navarre*, liv. iv. Moret, *Annales de Navarre*, tom. i. lib. 10. Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. ii. liv. 7. cap. 2. et 3. Masdeu, *Historia Civil de la España Árabe*, xii. 369—417. Abu Abdalla, *Vestis Acu Picta* (apud Casiri, ii. 214.). Condé, by Marlés, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. ii. 230., &c.

sity.* As civil war seemed inevitable, unless a reconciliation were effected between the royal pair, the nobles of Castile and Leon exerted themselves with so much success to attain this end, that they consented to smother their mutual repugnance, and again to approach each other. Unfortunately, however, the reconciliation was but momentary. Disgusted with her levity, her haughtiness, and, most probably, incensed at her guilt, the king publicly repudiated her at Soria, and sent her back into Castile. The nobles of that and the sister kingdom espoused her cause, and swore to shake off the domination of Aragon. But Alfonso had possession of many fortresses, which he hastened to defend. The first battle between him and Diego Gomez, the queen's paramour, happened on the 28th day of October, 1111, in the vicinity of Sepulveda. The king was victorious; don Diego, the general, being left dead on the field. But the queen appears soon to have consoled herself for the loss of one lover by another; if, indeed, she did not possess both at the same time. His place was supplied by don Pedro de Lara, by whom she is known to have had issue. It must not, however, be concealed, that, to save her reputation, some modern historians, with more chivalry than knowledge of their own chronicles, contend that she was secretly married to the count, though not one word of such a union is to be found in any one of those authorities.†

After this victory, king Alfonso took undisputed possession of Burgos, Palencia, Coria, Sahagun, and even Leon. He is accused of having committed atrocities during his march, worthy only of the fierce Almohades; but accusations made by rancorous opponents cannot be received with too much caution. There was now a third party formed, which appears to have favored neither the queen nor the king of Aragon, and which, in 1112, crowned the infant don Alfonso Raymond king of Galicia. The dislike entertained by the people to the domination of a foreigner, and the notorious levities of Urraca, were the causes which influenced the bishop of Santiago (whose see was subsequently raised into an

* The character of this princess is very unfavorably, and no doubt very truly, drawn by the national writers of Aragon, and even by the foreign historians of Spain.

† The sticklers for the marriage of the queen with don Pedro forget to tell us that the son of which that count was the father was born before her separation from Alfonso. This son was called Diego *Hurtado*, or Diego the *Stealthy*, since his birth was carefully concealed. How many other children she had by the count, cannot be gathered from the obscure expressions—"Comitem Larensem P. Gundisalvidem, qui cum matre ipsius regis (Urraca, mother of Alfonso VII.) adulterine concubuerat, ex ipsa regina adulterinos filios genuerat, &c."—*Histor. Compost.* p. 518. (apud Florez, tom. xx.).

It must not, however, be forgotten, that the character of this princess, which required no unnecessary severity, has been deepened in color by the prejudiced, we might say the vindictive, authors of this Chronicle.

archbishopric) to take this step, and to deprive the king of Aragon of all pretensions over Castile and Leon: he requested the pope to declare null the marriage between that sovereign and the queen,—the only basis on which those pretensions rested. Until the will of the pontiff should be known, the queen retreated into Galicia, to collect troops for her defence and that of her son. Aided by the forces of her brother-in-law, count Eurique of Portugal, she soon returned into Leon, to raise the siege of Astorga, then pressed by the king of Aragon. Alfonso was compelled to retire from the place; but his troops continued to make incursions from their fortresses into the surrounding country. But this struggle seemed likely to be protracted hopelessly; especially as the queen's own nobles, whom her weak or criminal partiality for don Pedro de Lara so deeply disgusted, sometimes refused to couch a lance in her behalf. A council, however, having assembled at Palencia (in 1114) in conformity with the papal recommendation, to decide on the great question previously submitted to his holiness, and declared the marriage to be null, the supporters of the Aragonian king gradually fell from him, and he left the kingdom to turn his arms against the Mohammedans of his neighborhood.

The retreat of Alfonso did not restore peace to the lacerated state. Though the queen recovered the fortresses which still held for him, her unbridled passions, and her conduct—a mixture at once of rashness and pusillanimity—created enemies on every side. Now the bishop of Santiago, now her own son, was the object of her persecution. More than once did she unnaturally arm against the latter; and when constrained to a reconciliation with him, she renewed hostilities the moment her unprincipled ambition discovered an opening for them. Not satisfied with the tranquil possession of Leon and Castile, she aspired to that of Galicia; and, on the other hand, the partisans of her son, disgusted with her character and actions, were anxious to dethrone her, and place their favorite in her room. Several towns of the kingdom, indeed, declared for the young prince; and, on one occasion, her paramour was seized by two Castilian nobles, and confined in the castle of Mansilla. The internal state of the country, which was alternately ravaged by the hostile parties, was horrible. In fact, her reign was one interrupted succession of troubles; most of which were justly imputable to herself. At length, in 1126, she ended her stormy and disastrous life, to the universal relief of her people. She left to posterity a character darkened by many crimes, and scarcely redeemed by a single virtue.*

* The attempts made by Ferreras (iii. 366.), by Masdeu (xx. 35, &c.), and

ALFONSO VIII., usually styled the *Emperor*, who inherited the crowns of Castile and Leon, after silencing a few of his turbulent nobles, directed his first efforts to the recovery of certain fortresses still held in Castile by the king of Aragon. Of these places, some, which had refused to acknowledge his mother, immediately recognized his authority; but Castro-Xeriz and the province of Rioja adhered to the Aragonian. To reduce these, the one put in motion a considerable army: to preserve them, the other advanced as far as Tamara. The blood which should have ransomed Christian Spain from the yoke of the misbelievers was about to flow in this disgraceful strife, when the prelates and barons of both armies wisely interfered, and reconciled the two princes. The king of Aragon even abandoned his remaining possessions in Castile to the young Alfonso. The tranquillity thus established was interrupted for a moment at the end of about two years,—if, indeed, as there is some reason to suspect, the periods have not been confounded,—by another hostile aggression of the king of Aragon, who invested Moron, but who retired without prosecuting the siege. His arms found a more fitting enemy, the Mohammedans, over whom he repeatedly and gloriously triumphed. On his death, before Fraga, in 1134, in an unfortunate action against them, his dominions were rescued from ravage by the seasonable advance of his brother of Castile and Leon, who forced the misbelievers to retire. But the latter sovereign appears to have been actuated by other motives than generosity in affording this prompt succor.* Najera, Calahorra, Tarrazona, and even Saragossa, omitting many minor places, which opened their gates to him, as the ally of their sovereign Ramiro the Monk, he evidently considered as his conquests; nor would he resign them to the new king, except as fiefs: he endeavored even to procure the recognition of his superiority

others, to clear the character of this princess, must surprise every reader conversant with the chronicles of this period. Her implication in the murder of her brother, don Sancho, before Zamora,—her imprisoning, and, as there is reason to believe, projecting the assassination, of don Diego Gelmirez, metropolitan of Santiago,—her conjugal infidelity,—her unnatural wars with her son,—her restless ambition,—are facts of which no reasonable doubt can be entertained. The positive testimony of the three authors of the History of Compostella, who wrote from 1100 to 1140, cannot be shaken. They are, however, unmercifully treated by Masdeu; not because their testimony is at variance with probability, or unconfirmed by other authority, but because they had the misfortune to be Frenchmen. For the authority of this reign, see the last citations.

* Zurita (Anales, i. 48.) insists that the Castilian appealed to the generosity of the Aragonese. "Y humiliandose al emperador (Spain had two emperors at the same time) le pidio le dexasse su tierra, y mandasse que se le entregassen sus Castillos; y el, como principe muy generoso, lo tuvo por bien por aquel camino." Such, indeed, is, or seems to be, the relation of Rodrigo of Toledo; but the Chronicles of Castile carefully refrain from mentioning the humiliation; they even go so far as to say that it was the king of Aragon who begged for peace, and that he did so because he was afraid to engage with an enemy so superior in number as the Castilians.

over the whole kingdom of Aragon, but in vain. The new king of Navarre, however, did him homage,—doubtless to procure his aid against Ramiro, who wished to reunite that kingdom with Aragon.* The counts of Barcelona and Toulouse swore fealty in the same manner. These advantages, much more splendid than real, so flattered the pride of Alfonso, that, on his return to Leon, in 1135, he solemnly assumed the imperial title,†—a title as vain as it was pompous; since Navarre was about to become again dependent on Aragon, and Portugal was already independent of his sway. In fact, he had scarcely time to congratulate himself on his fancied increase of dignity, when the princes of Navarre and Portugal, in accordance with a treaty between them, declared war against him. That war led to no decided success on either side: he took, indeed, a few fortresses from the former; but the latter defeated his best troops, and would probably have made some conquests, had not an irruption of the Mohammedans summoned the Portuguese force to a worthier field. The latter triumphed; and on the very plains which, in 1139, witnessed the defeat of the misbelievers, he was elected king.‡

In 1140, Alfonso entered into an iniquitous alliance with the successor of Ramiro (Raymond count of Barcelona, who had married the daughter of Ramiro), in which both princes agreed to conquer and divide Navarre between them. But don Garcia was not to be easily crushed. Before the two kings could unite their forces, he obtained a signal triumph over Raymond; and even afterwards compelled his imperial enemy to make peace with him. The alliance was still further cemented, in 1144, by the marriage of Garcia with a natural daughter of Alfonso; and of Sancho, one of Alfonso's sons, with a princess of Navarre. The new king of Portugal, too, who appears to have been the ally of Garcia, and who made several irruptions into Galicia, not only defended his independence, but obtained successes over the Mohammedans as solid as they were splendid.

In his hostilities against the mutual enemies of his country and faith, Alfonso was more fortunate: by him, and his ally of Aragon, the Christian frontier was removed from the Tagus to the Sierra Morena: he rendered tributary the Moorish governors of several places in Andalusia, as Baeza and Andujar. His last battle, delivered in 1157, against the Cid Yusef, son of Abdelmumen, emperor of the Almohades, was indecisive. Immediately after the action, he set out on his return to his own dominions; but death surprised him in the village of

* See the histories of Navarre and Aragon.

† Imperator totius Hispaniæ.

‡ See the history of Portugal.

Fresnada, near the port of Muradal, one of the great openings through the mountainous chain which separates Andalusia from New Castile. Eight years before his death, he had raised two of his sons to the dignity of kings: on Sancho, the eldest, he had conferred Castile, the mountains of Burgos, Biscay, and Toledo; on Fernando, Leon, the Asturias, and Galicia. Alfonso was no common monarch. Though he lost Portugal, and was unable to withstand the genius of his namesake of Aragon, whom he imitated in assuming the imperial title, yet with fewer pretensions; though he is undeserving the exaggerated praises of the national historians, it cannot be denied that he exhibited great firmness in circumstances often very difficult; that he caused his territory to be respected by his Christian neighbors, and greatly aggrandized it at the expense of the Mohammedans. His talents, however, were inferior to his ambition, and his moderation to both.

Towards the close of Alfonso's reign may be assigned the origin of the military order of Alcantara. Two cavaliers of Salamanca, don Suero and don Gomez, left that city with the design of choosing and fortifying some strong natural frontier, whence they could not only arrest the continual incursions of the Moors, but make hostile irruptions themselves into the territories of the misbelievers. Proceeding along the banks of the Coales, they fell in with a hermit, Amando by name, who encouraged them in their patriotic design, and recommended the neighboring hermitage of St. Julian as an excellent site for a fortress. Having examined and approved the situation, they applied to the bishop of Salamanca for permission to occupy the place: that permission was readily granted: with his assistance, and that of the hermit Amando, the two cavaliers erected a castle around the hermitage. They were now joined by other nobles and by more adventurers, all eager to acquire fame and wealth in this life, glory in the next. Hence the foundation of an order which, under the name, first of St. Julian, and subsequently of Alcantara, rendered good service alike to king and church. Suero, the first superior, wishing to imitate the Templars in leading a life at once religious and military, requested a rule from the bishop of the diocese, and obtained that of St. Benedict.*

* *Chronicon Lusitanum*, p. 408. (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, tom. xiv.). *Historia Compostellana*, lib. iii. (apud eundem, tom. xv.). *Cronica Adelfonsi Imperatoris*, p. 330—347. (apud eundem, xxi.). *Chronicon Contimbricense*, p. 330. (apud eundem, xxiii.). *Anales Toledanos*, i. p. 380. (in eodem). *Anales Toledanos*, iii. p. 410. (id eodem). *Rodericus Toletanus, Rerum in Hispania Gestarum*, necnon *Lucas Tudensis, Chronicon Mundi* (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. ii. iv.). *Alonso el Sabio, Cronica de España*, part iv. *Zurita, Anales de Aragon*, (sub propriis annis). *Lemos, Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. iii. liv. 9. *Ferreras, Histoire Générale d'Espagne*, by Hermilly, tom. iii.

1157 **FERNANDO II.** king of Leon, and **SANCHO III.** king
to of Castile, ascended the throne in the wise resolution
1188. of observing peace with each other, and thereby of
averting the evils generally resulting from divided
power. Of the latter, little more is known than that he waged
a short but successful war against the king of Navarre, who
aspired to the possession of Rioja; that his generals were also
triumphant over the Moors; that he died at Toledo about a
year after his accession (1158), and was succeeded by his in-
fant son Alfonso.

1158 The minority of **ALFONSO III.**, who, on his father's
to death, was no more than three years of age, was one
1214. of troubles: these were chiefly occasioned by the two
powerful families of the **Castros** and **Laras**, who each
contended for the guardianship of the royal infant, and, con-
sequently, for the direction of affairs. By the last will of
Sánchez, the important trust had been confided to **don Gutier-
rez de Castro**. This roused the jealousy of the **Laras**, whose
chief, **don Manrique**, openly armed to assert his ambitious pre-
tensions. The tempest was for a time allayed by the modera-
tion of **don Gutierrez**, who, preferring the sacrifice of power
to the horrors of civil strife, voluntarily resigned the dignity
in favor of a member of the rival house. But on his death, in
1159, his kinsmen endeavored to regain possession of the
guardianship; and on finding that they were unable to con-
tend with the powerful **Laras**, who even deprived them of all
their public employments, in opposition to an express order of
the late king,—an order which forbade any changes to be
made in the dignitaries of the state, whether civil or military,
until the young king arrived at age,—they complained to **Fernando**
of Leon: that sovereign, who coveted the post of re-
gent for himself, immediately invaded Castile; and was ac-
knowledged as such by several cities of the kingdom, especially
Toledo. But the **Laras**, though unable to oppose him on the
field, continued to elude his pursuits. By fleeing from fortres-
to fortress with their important charge, they at length so tired
his patience, that he returned to Leon, leaving them in ac-
knowledged possession of their young king's person. But
Fernando still retained, as regent, most of the great towns; to
obtain these also, the **Laras** took up arms: he marched against
and defeated them. The **Navarrese** took advantage of these
troubles to take several places in Rioja; which, however,
were subsequently recovered by the partisans of **don Manrique**.
In 1163, **Fernando** was persuaded to make peace with the
Laras; but the **Castros** would not desist from their hostility.
The following year, **Fernando Ruis de Castro**, governor of
Toledo, defeated and slew **Manrique**, so that the wardship fell

on another member of the house of Lara. Fortunately, however, these ruinous contentions ceased on the marriage of Alfonso, in 1170, with the princess Eleanor, daughter of our Henry II. From that day the young king exercised the sovereign power without control.

The reign of king Fernando was one of unceasing activity: sometimes at war with the Moors, sometimes with his nephew of Castile, and now with the sovereign of Portugal, he seemed to exist only amidst bustle. The results of these wars were too indecisive, and their details too uninteresting, to require more than a very general notice. He recovered Badajoz, which the king of Portugal had reduced; took Cáceres from the Moors; and more than once triumphed over the generals of Yusef, the African emperor. On the whole, however, this period was unfavorable to the Christian arms: the tributary governors of Andalusia had thrown off their forced allegiance at the death of the emperor Alfonso; Portugal had been signally humbled; and the united forces of Castile and Aragon more than once retreated before the formidable Almohades. It was to repress the never-ceasing incursions of the Mohammedans, as well as to return these incursions with interest, that, in the time of Fernando, two military orders, those of Calatrava and Santiago, were instituted.

The origin of the former order was owing to the devotion of two Cistercian monks; St. Raymond, abbot 1158. of Fitero, and his companion, the friar Diego Velasquez. These intrepid men, who had both borne arms previous to their monastic profession, indignant at the cowardice of the Templars, who resigned into the king of Castile's hands the fortress of Calatrava, which had been confided to their defence by the emperor Alfonso, proposed, in 1158, to the regency of that kingdom, to preserve that position against the assailants. The proposal was readily accepted. The preaching of the warlike abbot was so efficacious, that in a short time he assembled 20,000 men, whom he conducted to Calatrava, and among whom were not a few of his own monks. There he drew up the institutions of the order, which took its name from the place, and which in its religious government long followed the Cistercian rule, and wore the same monastic habit,—a white robe and scapulary.*

The other order commenced in 1161. Some robbers 1161. of Leon, touched with their past enormities, resolved to make reparation for them, by defending the frontiers against the incursions of the Mohammedans. Don Pedro Fernandez—if the *don* has not been added to give something like re-

* By pope Benedict XIII. the habit was dispensed with, and the knights allowed to marry *once*.

spectability to the origin—was the chief founder of the order. He engaged the brethren to assume the rule of St. Augustine, in addition to the ordinary obligations of knighthood. His military and monastic fraternity was approved by king Fernando; at whose suggestion the knights chose Santiago as their patron, whose bloody sword, in form of a cross, became their professional symbol. These two orders were richly endowed by successive kings of Leon and Castile, until their possessions became immense.*

1188 Fernando died in 1188, and was succeeded by his
to son, ALFONSO IX. One of the first acts of the new
1230. king was to continue the good understanding which had
for some time subsisted between his father and his
cousin of Castile. By the hands of Alfonso III. he received
the honor of knighthood, and accompanied that prince in an
expedition against the Africans. That good understanding,
indeed, was sometimes interrupted. As early as 1189, the two
princes appear to have quarrelled respecting the possession of
some unimportant conquests in Estremadura, which, from hav-
ing been made by their united arms, ought in justice to have
been divided between them, but which the sovereign of Cas-
tile claimed for himself. The king of Leon, feeling that he
was no match single-handed for the Castilian,—during the
late reigns this kingdom had been too powerful for its northern
neighbor,—contracted a close alliance with his uncle, Sancho
I. of Portugal, whose daughter, the princess Theresa, he took
to wife. As the parties were within the degree of affinity
prescribed by the canon law, pope Celestine III. dispatched
cardinal Gregory into Spain, to enforce the dissolution of the
marriage. A council assembled at Salamanca in 1191 declared
it null. Four prelates, however, refused to join their brethren
in this condemnation of a union, the validity of which was de-
manded by the policy of the two monarchs, and to which, as-
suredly, no objection arising either from the Divine law or
that of nature could be urged. They were excommunicated
by the furious legate, who threatened to place the kingdom
of Leon and Portugal under an interdict, unless the king and
queen formally separated from each other. This remonstrance
had no effect; the two princes, as well as the queen, appear
to have adhered to the marriage as much through inclination

* *Chronicon Lusitanum*, p. 414, &c. (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, tom. xiv.). *Chronicon Burgense* (apud eundem, xxiii. 309.). *Annales Compostellani* (in eodem, p. 322.). *Chronicon Conimbricense* (in eodem, p. 333.). *Anales Toledanos*, i. (in eodem, p. 391.). *Anales Toledanos*, ii. (in eodem, p. 404.). Ximenes, *Rerum in Hispania Gestarum*, necnon *Lucas Tudensis*, *Chronicon Mundi* (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. ii. iv. sub propriis regnis.) Moret, *Anales de Navarra*, tom. ii. (in regno don Sancho VI.). Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. iii. liv. 10, 11.

as even policy: but the church was not to be resisted with impunity; the interdict, in 1193, was actually laid. The affrighted people began to murmur—not against the pope, the real author of this calamity, but against their sovereigns, whose obstinacy alone they regarded as the cause. In vain did Alfonso send an episcopal ambassador to Rome, to procure a reversal of the sentence, and a dispensation for removing the bar of consanguinity. The pontiff was inexorable: so also, for a considerable time, were Alfonso and his queen. It was not until the year 1195 that they consented to separate.

This was not the only instance in which the king of Leon was opposed in his policy or affections by the successors of St. Peter. After the defeat of Alfonso of Castile in 1195, by Aben Yusef, on the plains of Alarcos, the intemperate language of that prince to his ally of Leon, who was advancing to his assistance, led, as before related, to a war between the two kings, who ultimately laid waste each other's dominions. When, in 1197, they met, each at the head of a formidable army, the nobles and prelates of both, convinced how fatal to the Christian cause such contests might become, especially considering the enterprising character of the African emperor, anxiously sought the means of a permanent reconciliation. It was at length agreed that the king of Leon should marry Berengaria, daughter of the king of Castile, and, by her mother Eleanor, nearly connected with our royal house of Plantagenet. How, after the unfortunate issue of the former marriage, the prelates could advocate the solemnization of another within the same forbidden degree of affinity, we are not informed: they might indulge the hope that, where such mighty interests were involved—where the weal of two states, and that of Christendom, was counterbalanced only by an impediment light as air—the scruples of the pontiff (Innocent III. now filled the chair of St. Peter) would not be insuperable. But their wishes, however natural, were wofully disappointed. Though the marriage had been solemnly celebrated at Valladolid, amidst the rejoicing of a whole people, Innocent loudly demanded the separation of the parties, and dispatched a legate with instructions to lay an interdict on the kingdoms of Leon and Castile, if this demand were not satisfied. The legate appears to have been more reasonable than his intolerant master; for, on perceiving how vitally the welfare of the two states would be affected by the nullity of the marriage, and the tender affection borne by Alfonso towards the new queen, he suspended the execution of his instructions, until a powerful representation of these facts were laid before the pope in person. Innocent, like his predecessor, was obstinate—doubtless because, as he had not been previously consulted, he wished to show that the power

of the church was not to be resisted, even by kings. Alfonso was equally so—the rather as the birth of a son opened a prospect of the union of the two crowns, should that son's legitimacy be undisputed. As before, the king and queen were excommunicated, and Leon placed under the dreaded ban of the church. Some prelates refused to admit the interdict, which they justly considered as both tyrannical in itself, and the offspring of a petty resentment in him who imposed it: they could not see why kings should be refused a dispensation granted to persons of far inferior station, nor why interests so momentous should be sacrificed to the passion or prejudice of an unreasonable old man. Hence the two parties which divided the kingdom,—one in favor of the papal prerogative, the other of common reason and the rights of society. In 1204, however, the resistance of the royal pair began to give way; and they consented to separate, on condition that the legitimacy of their children were acknowledged both by the pope and the states of Leon. Innocent did not hesitate to comply with the request; and, in a convocation of those states, Fernando, the eldest of their children, was recognized as successor to the throne of his father.

1212. The declared nullity of the marriage was followed by a war—desultory, indeed, but not the less vexatious—between the two Alfonsos: the cause seems to have been the refusal of the Castilian to surrender some fortresses which had been given as dowry by the king of Leon, the restoration of which he had a right to demand on his separation from Berengaria. Peace was at length obtained through the mediation of the pope, and still more through the apprehensions felt by the Castilian on the approaching invasion of his states by Mohammed ben Yacub, emperor of the Almohades, whose preparations resounded throughout Europe. How nobly Alfonso, on the plains of Tolosa, in 1212, avenged his defeat of 1195, on those of Alarcón, has been already related.* On this occasion, the king of Leon, who was not with the victorious Christians, took an ungenerous advantage of his father-in-law's absence, and recovered the disputed places. That they were rightfully his, is indisputable; but he might surely have chosen another time for gaining possession of them. Fortunately for him, the Castilian, whose mind seems to have acquired elevation from the splendid success near Tolosa, showed no dissatisfaction at his conduct; but, on the contrary, courted his alliance, that the arms of both might be at any time ready to resist or to assail the Mohammedans.†

* See Chapter II. of the first section.

† *Chronicon Lusitanum* (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, xiv. 416, &c.). *Chronicon Burgense* (apud eundem, xxiii. 309.). *Annales Compostellani* (in

Alfonso III. of Castile, did not long survive this glorious triumph. After two hostile irruptions into the territories of the enemy, he died in 1214, and was succeeded by his only surviving son, ENRIQUE I. As the new king, however, was only in his eleventh year, the regency was intrusted to his sister Berengaria, the most excellent princess of her age. But neither her wisdom, her virtues, nor the near relation she held to the infant, could avail her with the fierce nobles of Castile. The house of Lara, whose unprincipled ambition had on a former occasion been productive of such evils to the state, again became the scourge of the country. Under the pretence that a woman was unfitted to discharge the office of guardian, the nobles of that house formed a party powerful enough to impose on the regent, who, fearing that, if she retained the direction of affairs, in opposition to the reputed will of the people, the state must be the inevitable prey of convulsion, resigned, the following year, the custody of the royal ward to count Alvaro Nuñez de Lara, the chief of that turbulent family.

No sooner was don Alvaro in possession of the regency, than he exhibited the true features of his character,—haughtiness, rapacity, tyranny, and revenge. Those whom he knew to be obnoxious to his party he imprisoned, or confiscated their possessions. His exactions, which fell on all orders of the state, were too intolerable to be long borne; remonstrances were addressed to him by the clergy: but as they produced no effect, and as he laid violent hands, not only on the substance alike of rich and poor, but on the temporalities of the church, he was solemnly excommunicated by the dean of Toledo. Even this ordinarily terrific weapon was powerless with one who disregarded both justice and religion. The remonstrances of the queen Berengaria were treated with equal contempt: to render her odious to the people, he fabricated letters as if written by her, to procure by poison the death of her brother; but the opposite characters of the two were so well understood, that the imposture deceived no one individual. The regent, however, must have had a powerful party devoted to his interests, or he would not have set at defiance the thunders of the church, and the complaints of the people: that party served

eodem tom. p. 323, &c.). *Chronicon Conimbricense* (in eodem, 335.). *Chronicon de Cardena* (in eodem, p. 378.). *Anales Toledanos*, i. (in eodem, 393.). *Anales Toledanos*, ii. (in eodem, p. 404, &c.). *Anales Toledanos*, iii. (in eodem, p. 411.). *Rodericus Toletanus, Rerum in Hispania Gestarum, necnon Lucas Tudensis, Chronicon Mundi* (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. ii. iv. sub propriis regnis.). *Alonso el Sabio, Cronica de España*, part iv. *Lemos, Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. iii. liv. ii. See also the *Vestis Acu Picta* of Abu Abdalla (apud Casiri, *Bibliotheca Arabico-Hispana*, tom. ii.), and Condé, by Marles, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. tom. ii.

him so well in an assembly of the states held at Burgos, for the express purpose of inquiring into his administration, that it neutralized the hostility of the queen's adherents, and the members separated without a decision. "The king's name is a tower of strength;" and such don Alvaro found it; for numbers who declared for the princess, and even armed in her behalf, would not draw the sword against him, when they perceived that he was constantly accompanied by his youthful ward, in whose name all his acts were promulgated. Enrique, indeed, is known to have entertained some repugnance both to the person and character of the count, and to have expressed a wish to be again placed under his sister's care; but the regent was too powerful for both. To preserve his authority, the latter negotiated a marriage for his ward, first with an infanta of Portugal, next with one of Leon; in both cases, however, without success;—not that either of those courts entertained any objection to the alliance; but owing, in the one case, to the degrees of consanguinity—in the other, to stipulations which required time to discuss. Thus he continued his iniquitous career, running from place to place with the young king, destroying the habitations, and confiscating the substance of such as dared to censure his measures. But an accident, as unexpected as its consequences were fortunate for Spain, deranged all his views. Towards the end of May, 1217, while Enrique was playing with his young companions in the courtyard of the episcopal palace of Palencia, a tile from the roof of the tower fell on his head, and inflicted a wound, of which he died on the 6th of June following. Knowing how fatally this event must affect his interests, don Alvaro, with the intention of concealing it as long as he could, conveyed the royal corpse as the living prince to the fortress of Tariego; but the intelligence soon reached the queen, who, on this critical occasion, displayed a prudence and promptitude justly entitled to admiration. By the laws of Castile, she was now heiress to the crown; but she resolved to transfer her rights to her son Fernando, heir to the crown of Leon, and thereby to lay the foundation for the union of the two kingdoms. Knowing that the young prince and his father, her former husband, were then at Toro, she dispatched two of her knights with an earnest request that king Alfonso would allow her to see her son. The request was immediately granted, and Fernando was conducted to Antillo, where he was met by his impatient mother, and received with acclamation by the people. From thence both hastened to Palencia. Still, as don Alvaro held possession of the chief towns and fortresses, some of the queen's partisans endeavored to effect a reconciliation between them; but as he had the insolence to insist on the guardianship of Fernando,

it was resolved to reduce him to obedience by force. For a moment, indeed, fortune favoured the rebel: Avila, Segovia, Coria, and some other places which obeyed governors devoted to his cause, refused to acknowledge the queen; and don Sancho, brother of the king of Leon, advanced to assist Alfonso's claim to the regency, if not to the sovereignty of the kingdom. But the appeal of Berengaria to the nobles and clergy of the realm, produced, on the other hand, the most favorable effect. All remembered, that during the reign of her father, she had been declared heiress to the throne, in case she survived her brother, and that prince died without issue. The states eagerly hastened to Valladolid, and swore allegiance to her as their lawful sovereign. Immediately afterwards a stage was erected at the entrance of the city; and there, on the 31st day of August, 1217,—near three months from the death of Enrique,—the queen, in presence of her barons, prelates, and people, solemnly resigned the sovereignty into the hands of her son, who was immediately proclaimed king of Castile.*

But FERNANDO III. was not yet in peaceable possession of the crown: he had to reduce the towns which held for don Alvaro, and, what was still worse, to withstand his father the king of Leon, who now invaded the kingdom. Aided by the party of that restless traitor, Alfonso aspired to the sovereignty: he marched on Burgos, which had just acknowledged his son, and, in opposition to the entreaties of the clergy,—in all countries the uniform friends of legitimacy and order,—he laid waste the domains of that son's adherents. The Castilian nobles were not slow in combining for the defence of their king: they hastened to Burgos in such numbers, and were animated by such a spirit, that Alfonso, despairing of success, or touched by the more honorable feelings of nature and justice, desisted from his enterprise, and returned home. In his justification, however, it must not be forgotten that he could have no expectation, as he assuredly had not the wish, of ultimately injuring his son; as even in the event of his success, that son would still be the heir to both states. No doubt, he longed to acquire and to exercise an increase of power, and to relinquish it only when summoned by death: but, to his honor, he abandoned the attempt the moment he perceived the popularity of the new sovereign; and censured the officious countess, who, by representing to him the wish of Castile as unanimous in favor of his pretensions—for supposing his marriage with Berengaria to be valid, those pretensions were not without weight—had betrayed him

* Chiefly the same authorities as last quoted; with the addition of Diego Lopez de Cortegano, Cronica del Santo Rey Don Fernando Tercero, i. 39.

into so odious an enterprise. Count Alvaro had already been made prisoner by a party of the royal forces; but released, on surrendering the fortified places which he held. Of this ill-judged clemency, Fernando had soon reason to repent, if the statements of a contemporary authority be founded in truth,—that he again appeared in arms, and again prevailed on the king of Leon to disturb the repose of Castile. However this be, it is certain that no actual hostilities took place a second time between father and son; and that the cause of all their commotions ended his unprincipled life in disgrace and poverty in 1219. One of his brothers fled to Africa.

1219 Tranquillity being thus restored, the kings of Leon
to and Castile prepared to commence an exterminating
1230. war against the Mohammedans. The crusade was
published by the archbishop Rodrigo, the celebrated
historian; and the same indulgences granted to those who assumed the cross in Spain, as to those who visited the Holy Land. In pursuance of this act, a multitude from all parts of the peninsula assembled at Toledo. The result, however, by no means corresponded with the extent of the preparations. Neither of the kings took the field: Fernando appears to have been retained at home, in exterminating more formidable bands of robbers whom the late excesses called into activity, and in burning heretics. Though partial irruptions, generally attended with success, were made into the territories of the Moors from various parts,—from Aragon, Castile, Leon, and Portugal,—it was not until 1225 that the career of conquest commenced, which ended in the annihilation both of the African power, and of all the petty kingdoms which arose on its ruins. In that and the two following years, Murcia was invaded, Alhambra taken, and Jaen besieged, by Fernando; Valencia invaded by king Jayme of Aragon; Badajoz taken by Alfonso, and Elvas by the king of Portugal. The king of Castile was present before Jaen, which his armies had invested two whole years, when intelligence reached him of his father's death (in 1230), after a successful irruption into Estremadura.

1230. The inestimable advantage which this event was calculated to procure for Christian Spain,—the consolidation of two kingdoms often hostile to each other,—was near being lost. In his last will, Alfonso named his two daughters,—for the kingdom had long ceased to be elective,—joint heirs of his states. The motives which could urge that sovereign to the repetition of an error so long and so fatally felt, we should vainly inquire: it may, however, be supposed that many nobles of the more ancient kingdom were unwilling to see it merged in the more modern though more powerful one of Castile. Fortunately for Spain, the majority of the Leon-

nese took a sounder view of their interests than Alfonso.—Leon, Astorga, Oviedo, Lugo, Mondoñedo, Salamanca, Ciudad Rodrigo, and Coria, declared for Fernando. Though Compostella, Tuy, and Zamora espoused the cause of the infantas; and though the count Diego Dias attempted to strengthen their party even in Leon itself* by force of arms; nobles, clergy, and people were too numerous in favor of the king of Castile, to leave those princesses the remotest chance of success. No sooner did that prince hear how powerful a party supported his just pretensions, than he hastened from Andalusia into Leon. As he advanced, accompanied by his mother Berengaria,—a princess to whose wisdom he was indebted for most of his successes,—Avila, Medina del Campo, Tordesillas, and Toro opened their gates to him. Directing his course towards Leon, Villalon, Mayorga, and Mansilla imitated the example of the other towns. As he approached the capital, he was met by the bishops and clergy, the nobles, and the people of the greater portion of the kingdom, who escorted him in triumph to the cathedral, where he received their homage. Scarcely was this ceremony concluded, when he assembled troops in the view of proceeding towards Galicia, where the infantas with their mother Teresa had formed a party. Here, again, he was aided by the excellent Berengaria in a way far more agreeable to her heart, and that of his subjects, than by open force. That princess, having requested an interview with Teresa, proceeded to Valencia do Minho in Galicia. Here the world witnessed the extraordinary spectacle of two queens, both the wives of one man, and both equally the victims of an imaginary conjugal impediment, advocating the claims of their respective offspring. Teresa yielded to the justice or the power of her rival: in consideration of an annual pension secured to her two daughters, she renounced, in their name, all right to the crown of Leon; and the fortified places which held for the infantas were consequently surrendered into the hands of the king.†

* Here the bishop of Tuy, a contemporary too, regales us with the relation of a miracle. The daring count, having penetrated with his armed followers into the cathedral of St. Isidro, was struck with so violent a headach by the offended saint, that his eyes appeared ready to start from their sockets; at the same moment the most acute pains tormented him in every part of his body. The penitent sinner immediately prostrated himself before the shrine of the saint, confessed his crime, and asked both pardon and his cure. His prayer was granted; he arose perfectly well, made his due reverence to the idol, and from that instant abandoned the cause of the infantas.

† *Cronica del Santo Rey Don Fernando Tercero*, by Cortegano, 40—79. *Annales Compostellani*, p. 324. (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, tom. xxiii.). *Anales Toledanos*, i., *Anales Toledanos*, ii., et *Anales Toledanos*, iii. (apud eundem, et in eodem tomo, passim). *Rodericus Toletanus*, *Rerum in Hispania Gestarum*, necnon *Lucas Tudensis*, *Chronicon Mundi* (apud Schottum,

of the misfortunes which afflicted his reign. His pretensions were at first supported by pope Alexander IV.; but as Suabia had already acknowledged Conradin, a prince of the imperial house of Frederic II., this interference was of no avail. Yet on the death of the emperor William, count of Holland, in 1256, and on the exclusion of Conradin as a candidate, the electors having resolved to make choice of a foreign prince, Alfonso aspired to the imperial dignity, and lavished his wealth for a purpose evidently unattainable. Though elected by one party, another and more powerful one gave their suffrages to Richard earl of Cornwall, brother to our Henry III.: in reality, neither election was legitimate. Hence the contest which so long distracted Germany and Italy, and the sums which Alfonso exacted from his kingdoms to support the validity of his election. That he did not visit the scene of war in person, was owing to domestic troubles which will soon be noticed. In vain did he apply to four successive popes, Alexander, Urban, Clement, and Gregory, to pronounce in his favor. Those pontiffs were probably unwilling to decide in a case where temporal arms only could ultimately prevail: all, indeed, appear to have regarded with coolness the claim of the Castilian. On the death of his competitor in 1271, he felt sure that the great obstacle was removed, and that his labors and intrigues of fifteen years would now be rewarded. But Gregory X., like his predecessors, was hostile to the pretensions of one belonging to a house so odious as that of Frederic Barbarossa; and he charged the electors to pass over Alfonso, and proceed to the choice of another candidate. In 1273, that choice, as is well known, fell on Rodolph count of Hapsburg: it was all but unanimous, since Ottocar of Bohemia was the only member of the confederation who maintained the validity of the king of Castile's former election. The weakness of the last named prince must surely have equalled his vanity, when, instead of concurring in the decision of the empire, and the solemn sanction of Gregory, he continued to persecute that pontiff with his ill-founded claims; until Gregory, having lost all patience, ceased to treat him even with ordinary civility, and excommunicated his few adherents.*

* *Chronicon Conimbricense*, p. 338. (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, tom. xxiii.). *Chronicon de Cardena*, p. 373. (in eodem tomo). *Anales Toledanos*, ii. (in eodem, p. 408.). *Anales Toledanos*, iii. passim (in eodem tomo). Rodericus Santius Episcopus Palentinus, *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 1—4. Alfonso à Carthagena, *Anacephalæosis*, cap. 83. Lucius Marineus Siculus, *de Rebus Hispaniæ*, lib. vii. Franciscus Tarapha Canonicus Barcionensis, *de Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 560. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* (in regno Don Jayme el Conquistador.) Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. iii. lib. 14. Also Abu Abdalla, *Splendor Plenilunii* (apud Casiri, *Bibl. Arab. Hisp.* tom. ii.); and Condé, by Marlés, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. tom. iii.

It can be no matter of surprise that the states of Alfonso should murmur at his expensive follies, or that he should become somewhat unpopular with his subjects. Another complaint of his nobles was, that in marrying his natural daughter, Beatrix de Guzman, to Alfonso II. of Portugal, he had resigned to that prince the sovereignty of the Algarves. These circumstances were eagerly seized by some discontented barons, who, under the plea of the public good, formed a party intended to compel the king into wiser measures, but whose real objects were purely selfish. They were headed by the infante don Felipe, brother of Alfonso, and don Nuño Gonzalez de Lara, member of a house which seemed as if raised for no other purpose than to be the scourge of the kingdom. They were anxious to join in their views the kings of Navarre, Aragon, and Portugal; but failing in the attempt, they were more successful with Aben Alhamar, the king of Granada, who promised to make a diversion in their favor on the frontiers of Castile. Some time, indeed, elapsed before they proceeded to open rebellion, though they assembled in arms, first at Lara in 1270, and subsequently at Palencia. Instead of marching without a moment's loss of time to reduce them by force, the king had the weakness to treat with them. He promised, that if they would lay down their arms, and make their complaints known to him, he would endeavor to redress such as he should find reasonable. Of this fatal error he had soon reason to repent: it rendered the rebels more secure of impunity, and the more insolent in their demands. The very first which they made,—that he should raise a contribution on the towns and communities, to satisfy the losses which they themselves had sustained in his service,—showed that their patriotism was on a par with their loyalty. This was followed by a list of alleged grievances, the sum of which was, that the *fueros*, or privileges of the nobles, were sacrificed to please the people; that the military service required from them was too long continued; that their contributions were too heavy, and too rigorously exacted by the royal collectors; and that they could not patiently submit to be judged by the king's magistrates forming the council of Castile: in other words, they claimed an exemption both from public contributions and from obedience to the laws, while they exercised a power at once rapacious and absolute over their own immediate vassals. That the insulted king did not immediately assemble his remaining adherents, and commence a war which should end only in the utter destruction of the rebels, must be attributed much more to his lamentable weakness of character than to their number and force. Instead of adopting measures becoming his station and the duty he owed

1260
to
1272.

his people, he promised that their grievances should be redressed. But their demands having risen with his imbecility and their own prospect of impunity, they refused to disarm until he had assembled the states at Burgos. On this point, too, he yielded: the cortes were accordingly convoked. Here the disaffected barons, being summoned to appear with the rest, refused to come, unless the king granted them a safe-conduct, and they might appear *in arms*: in other words, they intended to bear down all authority, by presenting a force capable of imposing on monarch and cortes. To admit armed men into a deliberative assembly would have been a novelty at all times startling; in the present case it might be still more apprehended: but the easy monarch, determined to sacrifice every thing for present peace, granted the demand. Before the assembled states, he caused the requisition of the malcontents to be repeated, with his own royal concession on every point. New demands were made, as unreasonable in themselves as they were insulting to the king. Strange to say, these too were conceded, one only excepted,—the duty on foreign merchandise,—which he would not consent to abandon; and stranger still, that seeing the great body of the cortes in his favor, he did not propose the capital punishment or the perpetual exile of the rebels. It was, doubtless, this preponderating majority—this, in fact, all but unanimity in the states—that prevented the audacious faction from proceeding to some violence; perhaps to laying hands on the royal person.

1272 The unexpected facility with which these concessions were made, surprised the rebels themselves, and
to reduced them to silence. They retired to the villages
1274 in the neighborhood of Burgos, whence they requested permission from the king to retire each to his post—that is, to their fortresses, where they might concert other means of annoyance. In vain did he endeavor, by frequent messengers, to procure their reconciliation with him: replying that they would listen to no proposals, they proceeded to the Tierra de Campos. After some deliberation, seeing the hopelessness of contending, under present circumstances, with one whom they were resolved not to obey, they agreed to forsake the kingdom, and to take up their abode with the king of Granada. It will almost appear incredible to the reader, that, instead of congratulating himself on being thus fortunately rid of these turbulent rebels, Alfonso should again have deputed several of his confidential nobles to them, and besought them, with as much humility as if they alone formed the support of his throne, to return and be reconciled with him! They turned a deaf ear to all his entreaties, and repaired to the court of Granada; where,

however, they had still grace enough left to request from Aben Alhamar, who received them with open arms, that he would not employ them against their own country. They remained at the Mohammedan court about two years, from 1272 to 1274; nor would they return to Castile, though repeatedly urged by the king and queen, until not only they were promised a restoration of their past dignities, but the concession of the most important points they had demanded. With the same success did they insist on peace for their friend the Moorish king. In short, they found that open rebellion was the readiest and surest way to the attainment of their wishes,—a lesson which, as we shall soon see, they were in no hurry to forget.*

During the absence of Alfonso, in 1275, on a fruitless visit to pope Gregory, then in France, respecting his pretensions to the empire, and during the existence of hostilities with the Moors both of Spain and Africa, died the infante Fernando de la Cerda, eldest son of Alfonso, and consequently heir to the united crowns of Leon and Castile. This event gave rise to disputes concerning the succession. By the Roman law, the two sons of the deceased prince stood the nearest in relation to the throne; but by that of the Wisigoths the more immediate proximity of the second son was recognized. To decide on this important subject—whether Spain should follow her own ancient institutions in this respect, or adopt that of other states—the cortes, in 1276, were convoked at Segovia. That body decided that immediate proximity ought to prevail over representation; in other words, that the second son, as being but one degree removed from the father, should be preferred to the grandsons, who were but the representatives of the eldest son, and were two degrees distant: the infante don Sancho was accordingly proclaimed successor to the throne. The popularity, however, of Sancho, who had distinguished himself in the wars with the Moors, and the tender age of the two sons of Fernando, had probably more weight in the question than either law or custom. That Alfonso himself, who was no mean jurist, was not ignorant of the legitimate laws of succession, is evident from his having transferred from the Justinian code into his *Siete Partidas* the very law on this subject in operation in ancient Rome, and in the modern kingdoms of Europe. The decision of the cortes appears to have given umbrage to Philip of France, whose sister Blanche was the widow of the deceased Fernando, and the elder of whose nephews he justly regarded as the rightful successor of Alfonso. That prince demanded his sis-

1275
to
1280.

* Chiefly the same authorities as last quoted. The Chronicle of Alfonso X., which we have been unable to consult, seems, from the quotations of Ferreras, to be very severe on the character and actions of that prince.

ter's dowry, which the Castilian king refused to return; and permission for the princess Blanche and her children to pass into France, which he likewise refused to grant. The princess, however, with the infantes and the queen of Alfonso, who beheld their exclusion with indignation, effected their escape from Burgos, and were received by the king of Aragon. War was now declared by France against Castile, but prevented from exploding by the interference of pope Nicholas III. In the sequel (in 1278) the queen of Castile returned to her husband, but Blanche proceeded to the court of her brother; the two infantes were retained in Aragon, less from motives of humanity or of justice, than from a view to embarrass the Castilian government whenever the opportunity should arrive. The worst feature of these transactions is one, however, that is wrapt in some obscurity. That prince Fadrique was put to death by order of his own brother, Alfonso, is undoubted; and there appears reason to conclude that the cause was the implication of the infante in the flight of Blanche, her children, and the Castilian queen. The national writers would fain believe that there were also other motives for this damning deed, but they can assign none: the way, too, in which that deed was perpetrated—the prince being secretly strangled, in his own palace at Burgos, by hired assassins—must cover the memory of Alfonso with everlasting infamy.

1281 To satisfy the continued expostulations of France
to respecting the rights of the infantes de la Cerda, in the
1284. cortes held at Seville in 1281, Alfonso seriously proposed to dismember Murcia from his crown in favor of those princes. The proposal filled don Sancho with so much indignation that he refused to attend the sittings. Another act of this weak monarch was no less condemned by his people: he debased the coin of the realm, yet decreed that it should preserve its former value. Then some arbitrary exactions and some vindictive acts of persecution towards obnoxious individuals; his petulancy of temper, which increased with his years; his intolerable rapaciousness; rendered him at once odious and contemptible. The discontented barons and deputies cast their eyes on Sancho, from whom alone they could expect justice. Seeing the almost universal disaffection of the people, this prince aspired to wrest the sceptre from the feeble hands which held it. Whoever condescends to flatter the multitude, will be sure to meet with success: whoever magnifies their real or sympathizes with their imaginary grievances, will command their attention. While his emissaries gained over to his cause the chief towns of Leon and Galicia, he himself drew over to his party Toledo, Cordova, Ubeda, Jaen, and most of the towns of Andalusia. He now proceeded to Valladolid, the rendez-

vous for his adherents, where, in 1282, the infante don Manuel, brother of Alfonso, proposed that he should be proclaimed king. The regal title, however, he refused to accept, and contented himself with those of heir and regent: so that he exercised the sovereign power, he cared not under what name. In vain did the king endeavor to pacify the rebel, by proposing to satisfy all his demands: in vain did he apply to the kings of Portugal, Navarre, and Aragon—Sancho had secured the neutrality of all these, and had, besides, obtained more than neutral favor from the king of Granada. Hopeless of succeeding in Spain, he next applied to the king of Morocco, who readily undertook the part of a parent against a rebellious child; and he solicited the pope to excommunicate his revolted subjects. At first the pope merely wrote to the grand masters of Santiago and Calatrava, exhorting them to effect a reconciliation between the parties. Amidst this universal defection, seeing that Badajoz and Seville were the only important places which remained in their allegiance, while the rest of the kingdom eagerly acknowledged Sancho, the incensed king assembled, in 1283, his few remaining adherents in Seville; and in a solemn act, he not only disinherited, but imprecated his deepest maledictions on the head of his rebellious son. In the same act he instituted the infantes de la Cerda as his heirs; and in default of their issue, the kings of France. This declaration, however solemn, was a mere *brutum fulmen*: he who had not been obeyed in life, could scarcely expect to be regarded after death. The pope now interfered more effectually in behalf of Alfonso, threatening the adherents of Sancho with excommunication unless they immediately returned to their duty; and at the same time placing an interdict on the kingdom. The clergy were the first to forsake their error: their example was followed by many of the barons and cities of the realm. Though the troops of the African king had returned home in disgust, the cause of Alfonso acquired strength from day to day: his other sons, who had taken part with Sancho, returned to him; nay, even Sancho himself, seeing the revolution in the opinions of men, made overtures of reconciliation. That such a reconciliation would have been effected, notwithstanding the strenuous efforts of some wicked courtiers about the prince, seems certain; but Sancho suddenly fell sick, and was conveyed to Salamanca. Whatever might be the failings of Alfonso, he was not deficient in natural affection: no sooner did he hear of the rebel's situation, than his indignation vanished for ever, and he courted retirement, that he might weep, without incurring reproof from his attendants, over the repentance and the danger of his son. So much affected, indeed, was he by the event, that anxiety threw him into a worse state than

that of Sancho. The latter was soon out of danger; but the king grew worse, until the 5th day of April, 1284, when he breathed his last. He did not, however, revoke his will.

The character of Alfonso must be sufficiently apparent from his actions. It may be added, that his acquirements were of a very superior order. The Astronomical Tables which he composed, and which are called by his name, have been often adduced as proofs of his science. It is, however, certain, that in their construction he was greatly indebted to the Moorish astronomers of Granada, some of whom visited his court for the express purpose of superintending, if not of calculating them. That he had a hand in the composition of the Chronicle which also bears his name, is no less undoubted; but we should vainly attempt to ascertain the portion issuing from his own pen. In the compilation of the Laws of the Partidas from the Justinian and Visigothic Codes, he had also a share,—how large a one must in like manner remain for ever unknown.* On the whole, it may be said of him, that, like our James I., he was an extraordinary instance of weakness and learning. Of his vanity, the well-known saying has been often adduced,—that if he had been consulted at the creation of the world, he could have advised some things for the better. If this saying were really uttered—which there are strong reasons to doubt†—it is probable the king had no blasphemous intention in view, but that he was merely ridiculing the then received system of Ptolemy. His transactions with the Moors have been already noticed.‡

1284 Notwithstanding the testamentary exclusion of his
to eldest son by the late king, the states of the kingdom
1288. lost no time in recognizing SANCHO IV. Equally ineffectual were the efforts of the infante don Juan, brother

* See the last chapter of the present book, which treats of the laws of Spain.

Other works composed by Alfonso, or at least ascribed to him, may be found in the well-known Bibliotheca of Nicholas Antonio.

† Mondejar is at some pains to disprove the authority on which the reputed blasphemy rests; he is doubtless right: Alfonso was no blasphemer. It is, however, certain that he was reputed one; if not in his times, at least in the age succeeding. Zurita (iv. 47.) alludes to it; but the most curious authority on the subject will be found in Appendix L.

‡ Chronicon de Cardena (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, xxiii. 379.). Chronicon Dni. Joannis Emmanuells (apud eundem, ii. 215.). *Anales Toledanos*, iii. passim (apud eundem, tom. xxiii.). Chronicon de Don Alfonso el Sabio (as quoted by Ferreras, tom. iv. passim.). Rodericus Santius, *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 5. This superstitious writer is very severe on the blasphemy and supernatural punishment of Alfonso—(see Appendix L.). Alfonso a Carthagina, *Anacephaleosis*, cap. 84. Franciscus Tarapha, *de Regibus Hispanie*, p. 561. (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* (in regno Don Pedro III.). Moret, *Anales de Navarra*, lib. xliii. et xliv. Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. ii. liv. 14. Also Abu Abdalla, *Splendor Plenilunii* (apud Casiri, *Bibl. Arab.-Hisp.* tom. ii.); Condé, by Marles, *Histoire de la Domination*, &c. tom. iii.; with many others.

of the new king, to seize on Seville, to which, in virtue of the same testament, he laid his claim. Neither that city nor the states, both wiser than the deceased monarch, would sanction the dismemberment of the kingdom.

During his father's lifetime, though in opposition to that father's wishes, Sancho had married his cousin, doña Maria de la Molina, without being able to obtain the necessary dispensation from the pope. When, in 1286, that queen was delivered of a son, his anxiety to get the legitimacy of his marriage, and consequently that of his child, sanctioned, naturally increased: he dreaded the pretensions of the infantes de la Cerda, who were still protected by the kings of Aragon and of France; but the pope continued inexorable. Equally fruitless were his negotiations with Alfonso III. of the former kingdom, to obtain possession of the two princes. Internal troubles soon added to his perplexities; and, as usual, these troubles arose from the very men who had experienced the greatest share of the royal bounty. To Lope Dias de Haro, who had rendered him some service on a former occasion, he confided the superintendence of the finances; he made him a count,—a dignity not yet common in the kingdom,—and married his daughter to the infante don Juan, thus closely connecting him with the royal family. The haughtiness of the new favorite soon rendered him odious to nobles and people, who complained to the king. No sooner did he perceive that he had lost ground in the confidence of his royal master, than, with his son-in-law the infante, he retired to the Portuguese frontier; whence, in conformity with the lawless manners of the times, both made frequent inroads into the territories of Sancho. Being summoned to make known the cause of his dissatisfaction, he appeared in arms, and had the insolence to inform the king that the only cause was his own will and pleasure. Sancho dissembled; but resolved from that moment to seize the persons both of the count and his brother. In a council convoked at Alfaro, in 1288, to consider of the propriety of leaguings with Aragon or with France, which were then at variance owing to the Sicilian war,* both repaired, accompanied, as usual, by many armed followers, to overawe alike king and council. Addressing both, in the midst of the prelates and barons, Sancho said—"Here you shall remain prisoners until you restore my fortresses!" The count drew his sword, and made towards the king; whether with the intention of really striking his sovereign, or only of effecting his escape, is doubtful. At the same moment don Juan also drew his weapon, and wounded two of the barons who attempted to obstruct his passage. The royal guards now

* See the history of Aragon.

gathered before the king: one soldier cut off the right hand of don Lope; another struck him on the head with a mace, and laid him dead on the ground. The same fate would probably have befallen the infante, had he not sought the protection of the queen, who was also present. The fortresses held by both were restored to the crown.

1288 The death of don Lope did not restore tranquillity to
to the state. His widow, though sister to the queen, in-
vited her eldest son, don Diego de Haro, to revenge the
1295, death of the count. Being joined by his uncle of the same
name, the latter repaired into Aragon, whose king was discontented with that of Castile. To embarrass the latter still more, Alfonso, the eldest of the infantes de la Cerda, was released from prison, and proclaimed king of Castile and Leon. In return for this support, Alfonso engaged to resign Murcia, many fortresses of which were already in the hands of the king of Aragon, to that ally. Both monarchs immediately armed, and a desultory warfare ensued, which had no other effect than that of harassing the Castilians, of impeding the administration of justice, and of draining the kingdom alike of money and troops. Weary of this vexatious struggle, and distracted by the partial insurrections which from time to time broke out in different parts of his realm, Sancho, in an interview with the king of France, in 1290, agreed to abandon Murcia to Alfonso; retaining over it, however, the feudal superiority. But this compact led to no result; the war still continued, until 1291: when, by bestowing the hand of his daughter Isabel on Jayme II. king of Aragon, he obtained rather a suspension of hostilities than peace. If to these harassing wars we add the alternate rebellion and submission of that perpetual curse of Spain, the family of the Laras; and the perversity of the infante don Juan, who was generally laying waste the frontiers on the side of Galicia and Portugal, until Dionis, the king of the latter country, expelled him, and forced him, as before related, to seek refuge in Africa; we may readily infer that Sancho's case was no exception to a rule which the great dramatic poet drew from human experience,—

“Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.”

This king died in 1295, leaving the guardianship of his eldest son, Fernando, then only nine years of age, and the re-gency of his kingdom, to his queen.*

* *Chronicon Conimbricense* (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, xxiii. 339.) *Chronicon de Cardeña* (apud eundem, xxiii. 360.). *Anales Toledanos*, iii. (in eodem tomo, p. 412, 413.). *Cronica del Rey Don Sancho IV.* (as quoted by Ferreras, tom. iv. passim). *Chronicon Dni. Joannis Emmanuelis*, p. 216 (apud Florez, tom. ii.). This royal historian, a son of Alfonso el Sabio, who played so conspicuous a part in the events of his time, takes care not to criminate himself. *Franciscus Tarapha, De Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 561. Al-

The reign of FERNANDO IV. was one continued suc-
cession of disasters. Scarcely had he received the hom- 1295.
age of the states, when his uncle, the restless Juan, who had
taken refuge with the king of Granada, called in question his
legitimacy, and laid claim to the crown. At the same time
Diego Lopez de Haro, who, towards the close of the late reign,
had made an attempt in Biscay, and failed, again invaded that
province, the government of which he considered as belonging
by right to his family. Dionis, the king of Portugal, armed
to obtain three frontier fortresses,—Serpia, Mora, and Moron;
and the king of Granada followed or set the example, in the
hope of procuring similar advantages. Nor did the measures,
however well intended, which the queen adopted in this emer-
gency, improve the face of her affairs. To make head against
don Diego, she commissioned two nobles of the house of Lara
to raise troops, and march towards Biscay; and delivered the
necessary sums of money for that purpose. The two traitors,
characteristically enough, received the money, professed the
utmost devotion to the royal cause, assembled the troops re-
quired, and—joined the rebel. To increase her perplexities,
the infante Enrique, who, in 1258, had rebelled against his
brother Alfonso el Sabio, and retired to Tunis; who had after-
wards passed into Italy, and returned into Spain in 1266; re-
solved to deprive her of the regency. In the cortes held at
Valladolid soon after Fernando's accession, he had address
enough to procure a share, at least, of the direction of affairs,
but not the guardianship of the prince. He seems to have
been a kind of co-regent with doña Maria.

In the mean time the infante don Juan appeared be- 1296.
fore Badajoz, which he summoned to acknowledge
him, but in vain. He now entered into an alliance with the
Portuguese king, who, in the view of deriving advantage
from the troubles of the kingdom, espoused his cause. To
disarm the latter, the queen abandoned to him the three for-
tresses which he coveted, and which, indeed, had been pos-
sessed by his crown. Through the entreaties of Enrique, and,
more still, through the offer of a government in Galicia, even
Juan himself, being thus forsaken by his royal ally, did homage
to Fernando. The rebel of Biscay and the Laras were paci-
fied by similar sacrifices. To procure peace within, the queen,
who was permitted to act in the king's name, though not, as
may be supposed, without the concurrence of Enrique, lavish-
ed money and governments, and rewarded rebellion with

fonens à Carthage, Anacephaleosis, cap. 85. p. 283. Rodericus Santius,
Historia Hispanica, lib. iv. cap. 6. et 7. (omnes apud Schottum, Hispania
Illustrata, tom. i.). Zurita, Anales de Aragon (in regnis Dos Alfonso III.
et Jayme II.). Moret, Anales de Navarra, lib. xxv.

riches and dignities. Such policy had its natural effect: no sooner were the nobles in possession of what they had long coveted, than, with the view of acquiring more, they again conspired against the state. The very year following this strange pacification (in 1296), Alfonso de la Cerda, who again renewed his pretensions to the Castilian crown, had no difficulty in prevailing on don Juan de Lara to revolt, and even to draw the infante of that name into his party. The two princes agreed on a division of the kingdom: that the infante Juan should have Galicia, Leon, and Seville; and Alfonso, Castile; while the king of Aragon should seize Murcia. This iniquitous league the kings of France, Portugal, and Granada were not ashamed to sanction. It seemed, indeed, as if the fate of Fernando were sealed, and as if his dominions were inevitably to be parcelled out among the combined robbers; but in human affairs there is a providence which often brings to naught the schemes of an unprincipled ambition.

1296 In accordance with the preceding treaty, Don Juan
to was proclaimed king of Leon in the very capital; and
1301. Alfonso, at Sahagun, king of Castile. Their combined forces, aided by some Aragonese troops, laid siege to Mayorga, which they hoped to reduce previous to investing Burgos. At the same time the king of Portugal invaded Castile, by Ciudad Rodrigo and Salamanca; and Mohammed of Granada spread his ravages into Andalusia. The dissensions of the allies, and the want of money, if not of provisions, felt by the besiegers of Mayorga, saved the kingdom. The siege was raised; the Aragonese, with Alfonso, returned; the Portuguese king, thus abandoned, did the same, but seized several fortresses on his march homewards; and though the king of Aragon, on another side, rapidly seized on the whole of Murcia, except Lorca, Alcala, and Mula, he was prevented from pursuing his conquests by the offers of the pope, who drew him into the Sicilian war. Portugal was soon afterwards induced to make peace with the kingdom; and even to enter into a permanent alliance, cemented by the marriage of Fernando with the princess Constanza, daughter of Dionis; and of the prince of Portugal with the infanta Beatrix, sister of the Castilian king. Still Alfonso de la Cerda, whose incursions were fatal to the eastern frontiers, and the infante don Juan, remained; and their hostilities were feebly met by the infante Enrique, who, whenever his services were required, never failed to extort whatever he pleased from the queen. Avaricious,—insatiably so,—perfidious, turbulent, and cruel, he proved a greater scourge to his country than any of its foreign enemies. Thus, when the states assembled at Valladolid, in 1300, voted the queen considerable supplies for op-

posing the enemy, he contrived to grasp the greater portion of it for his own private purposes. Become the most unpopular man in the monarchy, not even excepting the infante Juan, who, being deserted by Dionis, at length submitted to the lawful king; and fearing that he should be deprived by the cortes of the trust he had so shamefully abused; he leagued himself, now with the Aragonese king, now with Alfonso de la Cerda, according to his caprice or avarice. He was but too well assisted by the infante Juan: even after the arrival of the bulls of legitimacy, granted in 1301, by the pope, neither ceased to plot against Fernando. Fortunately, however, their very perversity neutralized their intrigues; since they were faithless alike to every party they embraced.

The anxieties of the queen-mother had always been cutting, but maternal affection had borne them without repining. She was now to experience a pang inconceivably keener than any which had hitherto afflicted her: that son, for whose welfare she had watched and suffered with a devotion unequalled, and a constancy truly heroic, was taught by the two infantes, not only to distrust her as one who aimed at keeping him in perpetual subjection, but to escape from her protection, and surrender himself to his unprincipled advisers: nay, on more than one occasion he studiously insulted her, by encouraging suspicions injurious to her integrity in the administration of the national finances. But nothing, not even filial ingratitude, could cool either the affection or the zeal of this princess, who believed—probably with reason—that the undutiful conduct of her son was owing to a misled imagination rather than a depraved heart. On the death of Enrique, in 1304, whose last action was to form an alliance against his sovereign with the king of Aragon, there appeared a prospect of happier times, especially when in the following year that king himself consented, not only to concede some places in Murcia, but to withdraw his support from the infantes de la Cerda. In consideration of ample revenues arising from the seigniorship of several villages, Alfonso, on that occasion, resigned the regal title.

But the troubles of Fernando were to end only with his life. During the remainder of his reign, he was continually at war with his revolted barons; and seldom did he succeed in reducing them by force to obedience: his gold did more than his arms. In so little fear, indeed, was he held, that his nobles not unfrequently made war on each other, disregarding his expostulations, and submitting only when it was their present interest to do so. Of the kingly dignity he had nothing but the name. The most turbulent and faithless of these barons was his uncle Juan, whose

whole life exhibited continual alternations of rebellion and of purchased submission. To detail these, or the other interminable dissensions of this reign, would afford neither pleasure nor instruction to any reader; they were but a repetition of those already noticed. Fernando's death was premature and sudden: if any faith is to be put in ancient chroniclers, it was no less extraordinary. During an expedition into Andalusia against the Moors, rumor accused two brothers of Martos, both cavaliers, of having assassinated one of the king's barons. Without taking the trouble to inquire into the circumstances, and in spite of their solemn asseveration of innocence, the king ordered both to be put to death. Seeing no hope of justice at his hands, they are said to have cited him to appear with them, in thirty days, before the judgment-seat of God. However this be, he was found dead on his couch, on which he was taking his siesta, September 17th, 1312.

During the reign of this prince, the Templars sustained their famous accusation. In the supposition that those of Castile were no less guilty than their brethren of France, the pope, in 1308, ordered their possessions to be sequestered: the same fate attended them in Aragon. The people's indignation,—no very accurate criterion, however, of guilt,—was so strong against them, that they were glad to take refuge in any fortress. They loudly demanded a fair trial, which was at length granted them. For this purpose a provincial council was held in 1310 at Salamanca; where, after a long, a patient, and apparently an impartial investigation, they were solemnly absolved from all the charges brought against them, and declared true knights and Catholic Christians. This honorable testimony in their favor, however, availed them little; since the suppression of their order was decreed the following year throughout the Catholic world. That some—numerically speaking, many—of this order were actually guilty of the crimes laid to their charge, rests on evidence too strong to be shaken; but why the whole community should suffer for the few, has never been explained. Popular prejudice seldom discriminates; but if the vulgar be too dull or too malignant to separate innocence from guilt, there is no excuse for the more enlightened. The riches of these knights, much more than their reputed vices, occasioned their condemnation.*

* *Chronicon Dni. Joannis Emmanuelis*, p. 216, 217. (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, tom. ii.) *Cronica del muy valoroso Rey Don Fernando*, passim. *Chronicon Conimbricense* (apud Florez, xxiii. 339.). *Chronicon de Cardeña* (apud eundem, xxiii. 360.). *Anales Toledanos*, iii. (in eodem, passim.). *Rodericus Santius*, *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 889. This writer relates and believes the heavenly citation. *Alfonsus à Carthagena*, *Anacephalæsis*, p. 284. *Franciscus Tarapha*, *de Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 562. (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.) *Zurita*, *Anales de Aragon* (in regno Don

As ALFONSO XI, the only son of the deceased king, was only a few months old on his accession to the throne, the state was again thrown into a long series of convulsions through the ambition of its barons. The first disputes were between the infantes Juan and Pedro—the latter uncle, the former grand-uncle, of Alfonso—and don Juan de Lara, for the wardship of the royal child. Each, as usual, endeavored to strengthen his party over the cities which returned deputies to the cortes. To frustrate the views of all three, the queen Maria consigned the charge of the royal infant to the bishop and people of Avila, who placed him under a strong guard in the tower of the cathedral. In the cortes of Palencia, in 1313, convoked expressly for the purpose of determining in whose hands the regency should be vested, one portion of the deputies voted for Maria and the infante Pedro; another for Constanza the queen-mother, and the infante Juan. The two princes had recourse to arms in support of their respective claims: after many months of continued hostilities, attended with various success, they agreed, at the instance of doña Maria, to divide the government between them. This policy,—the only one that could be prudently adopted in the critical circumstances of the time,—was sanctioned by the states of Madrid in 1315.

It could not, however, be expected that a good understanding would long subsist between the two regents. The laurels which Pedro won against the Moors excited the jealousy of the elder infante, who was more anxious to frustrate the success of his coadjutor, than to humble the enemy. It required all the influence of the prudent queen Maria (Constanza was no more), and all the representations of the assembled states, to preserve harmony between them. The death of both in 1319, in the battle of Granada, has been already related.*

The death of the two infantes was followed by new struggles for the regency. It was at length seized by the infante don Felipe, uncle of the king, and by don Juan Manuel, also of the royal family, and one of the most powerful barons of the realm; and the usurpation was confirmed by the states of Burgos in 1320. Another don Juan, surnamed *el Tuerto*, or the Crooked, son of the restless infante of that name, disappointed at his exclusion from the regency, took up arms to obtain the object of his ambition. Fernando de la Cerda, steward of the royal household, did the same. Of the facility with which the great towns could be made to give their suffrages in favor of any candidate, Burgos

Jayme II.). Moret, *Anales de Navarra*, lib. xxvii. Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. iv. liv. 15.

* See Section I. Chap. III. of the present volume.

affords us sufficient proof. First, Juan el Tuerto requested the vote of the council and people; they swore on the holy Gospels to acknowledge him alone. Immediately afterwards, Fernando de la Cerda presented himself before the same body, and obtained the same oaths. In this state of things we should vainly look for order, much less for prosperity: the laws were disregarded; the worst crimes were too common to create surprise;—the inevitable results of any government where the executive power is suspended or relaxed.* To allay these troubles, a pontifical legate arrived, and, by means of the prelates and cortes, succeeded in re-establishing something like tranquillity; but after his departure, and especially after the death of the old queen Maria, they broke out with renewed violence. Again did civil war, commenced by the ambition of the regents, who each aspired to the sole authority, and sustained by the fickle populace, desolate these fine regions.

1324. When, in 1324, Alfonso summoned the cortes at Valladolid, and assumed the reins of sovereignty, hopes were naturally entertained that rebellion would cease, and tranquillity, if not happiness, revisit the realm: they were lamentably deceived by the sequel of events. The first who troubled the state were Juan Manuel and Juan el Tuerto; who, discontented with their loss of power, conspired to regain it. To dissolve this confederacy, the king had recourse to a rare expedient: knowing that the latter was to marry doña Constanza, daughter of the former, he demanded and obtained that lady for himself. The marriage was celebrated at Burgos. It was, however, never consummated; owing chiefly to the continued depravity of Juan Manuel. In 1327, it was dissolved; the lady was shut up in the fortress of Toro, but soon restored to her father; and Alfonso was married, the following year, to the princess Maria of Portugal.

1324. Though abandoned by his ally, Juan el Tuerto re-
solved to make head against the king, by fortifying
to himself with the alliance of Aragon and Portugal. He
1333. rejected the overtures of Alfonso, who was willing to
make any sacrifices for the restoration of tranquillity. Seeing
him thus obstinate in rebellion, the king resorted to an expedient which might have created little surprise in a Turkish ruler, but must cover a Christian knight with everlasting disgrace. Being at Toro in 1325, he dispatched a messenger to that baron, urging him in the strongest terms to an amicable interview; and, to overcome all reluctance on the part of the latter, offered to confer on him the hand of the princess

* "Causa rubor aun la simple relacion de unos hechos que prueban la suma inconstancia y volubilidad de aquellas gentes."—Ortiz, iv. 312.

Leonora, sister of the king. Juan no longer hesitated to go: he was received with extraordinary signs of respect by Alfonso. The day after his arrival, he was invited to an entertainment: the moment he entered the royal apartments, he was stabbed by the assassins whom Alfonso had engaged for the purpose. Biscay, of which the seigniorship had belonged to the victim, was the reward of this foul deed. This transaction made a deep impression on Juan Manuel. Dreading the same fate, he not only refused to visit the king, but entered into an alliance with Mohammed IV. of Granada. The insult offered both to himself and his daughter in the approaching marriage of the king with the Portuguese princess, deepened his spirit of revenge. In 1328, he assembled his followers, and made a destructive inroad into the very heart of Castile: he was powerfully assisted by a diversion in his favor made by the troops of Aragon. Even when deprived of the aid hitherto afforded him by the latter sovereign, who married the sister of Alfonso, he not the less persevered in his implacable hostility. By force or intrigues he had obtained possession of some strong fortresses, from which he could securely defy the power of his sovereign, and levy contributions on the open towns. This desultory warfare, as vexatious to the king as it was inglorious, continued for years, notwithstanding the attempts at reconciliation made both by Alfonso's immediate emissaries, and by the agents of the pope. Don Juan was often aided by other discontented lords, such as the Laras, who rebelled on the slightest pretext, and returned to obedience only when purchased by their sovereign. Being forsaken in 1334 by one of his best supporters, a baron of that rebellious house, he himself, the following year, accepted the royal offers, and condescended to return to his duty on the condition of his daughter Constanza being given in marriage to the prince of Portugal,—a marriage which was effected in the course of the same year. But neither don Juan Manuel nor his brother rebel of Lara, could long remain at peace with their sovereign. Scarcely had they renewed their homage to Alfonso, when they formed a new league, and the civil war recommenced. The accession to their cause of the Portuguese king, enabled them to inflict great ravages on the kingdom. Alfonso opposed them with great vigor: while his generals forced the Lusitanian to raise the siege of Badajoz, he himself reduced Lerma, which was defended by don Juan de Lara, who submitted; and about the same time Juan Manuel precipitately retreated into Aragon. In 1338, the latter again returned to his duty; and though always a disaffected subject, he did not again break out into open rebellion.

1338 As the transactions of Alfonso with the Moors of
to Spain and Africa,—the most striking events of his reign,
1350. —have been already detailed,* little more remains to
occupy the reader's attention. His amours, however,
with doña Leonora de Guzman, ought not to be passed over
in silence; since they are connected with the worst acts of his
successor. This lady, who belonged to one of the most illustrious
houses of Spain, he first saw at Seville, in 1330, and
became deeply enamored of her. A widow at eighteen years
of age, she had not virtue to resist the royal lover: she sacrificed
her pride of birth, the honor of her family, her reputation
and peace of mind, to the vanity of pleasing, or to the
ambition of ruling, a monarch. From that moment she became
the constant attendant of Alfonso; nor could the reproaches
of his queen, the admonitions of the clergy, including even
the pope himself, nor the indignant remonstrances of the
queen's brother, the Portuguese king, prevail on him to dis-
solve the connexion: it continued unimpaired to the close of
his life. The issue of this adulterous intercourse were num-
erous, and, as we shall soon see, unfortunate. Of his legiti-
mate children, his successor alone survived him. He died of
the plague, before Gibraltar, in 1350.†

1350 On the accession of PEDRO, surnamed the *Cruel*,
to then only in his sixteenth year, Leonora de Guzman,
1351. dreading his resentment, or rather that of the queen-
mother, retired to the city of Medina-Sidonia, which
formed her appanage. Through the perfidious persuasions,
however, of a Lara and an Albuquerque, who governed the
mind of Pedro, and who pledged their knightly faith that she
had nothing to fear, she proceeded to Seville to do homage to
the new sovereign. No sooner did she reach that city, than
she was arrested and placed under a guard in the Alcazar.
The eldest of her sons, Enrique, who was permitted to visit
her there, would have shared the same fate, had he not pre-
cipitately retreated from the capital. From Seville she was
soon transferred to Carmona; and if her life was spared a few
months, it was not owing to the forbearance, but to the indis-

* See Section I. Chapter III.

† Villasan, *Cronica del Muy Esclarecido Principe y Rey Don Alfonso el Onzeno*, passim. *Chronicon Dni. Joannis Emmanuelis*, 218—222. (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, tom. ii.). *Anales Toledanos*, iii. (apud eundem, *xtiii. passim*). *Chronicon Comimbrense* (in eodem, p. 309—344.). *Alfonso a Carthagena*, *Anacephaleosis*, cap. 87. *Franciscus Tarapha, De Regibus Hispanie*, p. 562. *Rodericus Santius, Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 10—13. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). This last writer makes Alfonso predict the depravity of his son:—"Doleo acerbissime talem vobis relinquere heredem et dominum, qui meliorem vobis filium dimisisse optarem." Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* (in regnis Don Jayme II., Don Alfonso IV., et Don Pedro IV.). Moret, *Anales de Navarra*, lib. xviii. cap. 1—3., and lib. xxix. cap. 1—7. Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. iv. liv. 16, 17.

position of the king, which was at one time so dangerous as to render his recovery hopeless. Unfortunately for Spain, he did recover; and one of his first objects, early in 1351, was to draw her from Carmona, and make her accompany him to Talavera, where she was consigned to a still closer confinement. Her doom was soon sealed: in a few days she was put to death by the express order of the queen; no doubt, with the concurrence of the king.

This murder was quickly followed by another. Having dispatched one of his creatures to Burgos, to levy, by his own authority alone, a tax which, to be legal, required the sanction of the states, the people resisted, and slew his collector. Accompanied by his unscrupulous adviser, don Juan de Albuquerque, he hastened to that capital, to inflict summary vengeance on the inhabitants. They naturally took up arms; and being joined by Garcilasso de la Vega, the adelantado* of Castile, sent a messenger to the king, disclaiming all wish to oppose his authority, but beseeching him not to allow Albuquerque, whose violent character they well knew, to attend him. The request was disregarded; the count arrived, and the doom of Garcilasso was sealed. With the view of averting the deed, the queen intimated to him that, on receiving an invitation to wait on the king, he would do well to escape. Unconscious, however, of any crime, and unwilling by his refusal to encourage suspicion of his loyalty, he repaired to the palace. No sooner did Pedro perceive him, than the command was given:—"Ballasteros,† seize Garcilasso!" The adelantado begged for a confessor; but no attention would have been paid to the request, had not a priest accidentally appeared in sight. Both having retired for a few minutes into a corner, Albuquerque, who bore great enmity to the prisoner, desired the king to order what was to be done, and the ballasteros were immediately told to kill Garcilasso. On receiving the order, the men, who could not conceive it to be seriously given, hesitated to fulfil it: one of them, approaching the king, said, "Sir king, what are we to do with Garcilasso?"—"Kill him!" was the reply. The man returned, and with a mace struck the adelantado on the head, while another associate dispatched him. The bleeding body was thrown into the street; where after laying for some time to be trodden under foot by some bulls which were passing, it was removed outside the walls of the city, to be there buried. The same fate would have befallen the child Nuño de Lara, who by his father's death was become the hereditary lord of Biscay, had not his governess,

* For the dignity and function of this officer, see the last chapter of the present book.

† A sort of men-at-arms, whose usual weapon was a short club, or mace.

apprized of the intention, removed to a fortress in the heart of the Biscayan mountains. The child, however, soon died; and Pedro, by imprisoning the female heirs, obtained what he so much coveted—the rich domains of that house.

1352. Having held the states at Valladolid, where he ineffectually endeavored to procure the abolition of the *behetrias*,* Pedro proceeded to Ciudad Rodrigo, to confer on the interests of the two kingdoms with his grandfather, the sovereign of Portugal. Well had it been for him had he followed the advice of that monarch, who urged on him the necessity of moderation in his government, and, above all, of living on a good understanding with his illegitimate brothers, and to forgive the natural indignation they had shown at the death of their mother. He pretended, indeed, that the advice was not lost on him; and he even invited the eldest, Enrique, to return to court to rejoin his brother don Tello; but from his character and subsequent actions, it may be inferred that his object in so doing was solely to lull his intended victim into security. The invitation was accepted, but both brothers soon left him and revolted; whether at the instigation of some other rebels, or from a well-grounded apprehension of their danger, is uncertain. Some of the confederates were reduced and put to death; but the princes themselves eluded his pursuit,—don Tello by fleeing into Aragon. While besieging the places which had thrown off his authority, he became enamored of doña Maria de Padilla, who was attached to the service of his favorite's lady, doña Isabel de Albuquerque. Through the persuasion of this unprincipled minister, the uncle of the young lady, don Juan de Hínestroja, did not hesitate to sacrifice the honor of his house by consigning her to the arms of the royal gallant. The connexion thus formed, which continued unto the death of doña Maria, brought the greatest disasters on the country.

1353. Some months previous to this connexion, Pedro, in compliance with the request of the cortes of Valladolid, had agreed that an embassy should be sent to the French king, soliciting for wife a princess of the royal house of that nation. The choice fell on Blanche de Bourbon, a princess of excellent qualities, who, early in 1353, arrived at Valladolid. But the king, infatuated by his mistress, who had just been brought to bed of a daughter, was in no disposition to conclude the marriage; and it was not without difficulty that his minister Albuquerque, who was already jealous of the favors accorded to the relations of Maria de Padilla, and for that reason the more eager for its solemnization, prevailed on him to meet the princess at Valladolid. Leaving

* See the last chapter of the present book.

Padilla and his heart at Montalvan, he reluctantly proceeded towards that city. On his way he accepted the submissions of his brothers Enrique and Tello, whom, on an occasion like the one approaching, he could not decently punish for their rebellion. In June, the ceremony took place with due splendor; but two days after its celebration, he precipitately left his youthful bride, and returned to Montalvan. He was followed by his brother Fadrique, grand master of Santiago, and by Albuquerque; but he refused to see them. In a few days, indeed, he paid a short visit to his mother and bride, who remained in the city where the nuptials had been solemnized: to the latter it was a final one, nor did its duration exceed two days. On his return, Albuquerque was openly disgraced; the royal confidence was transferred to the family of Padilla; and the unfortunate Blanche was confined in the fortress of Arevalo, where no one, not even excepting the queen-mother, was allowed to see her.* To make way for Diego de Padilla, brother of the favorite, the grand master of Calatrava was treacherously murdered, and the commanders of the order compelled to elect the former.†

The next proceeding of this tyrant filled with surprise all who knew his attachment to Maria de Padilla. 1354. Being struck while at Valladolid with the personal attraction of doña Juana de Castro, a young maiden, he endeavored to gain her to his wishes. But the lady having too much virtue to yield, he changed his battery by boldly proposing to marry her. The proposition astonished one who knew his public engagement with Blanche de Bourbon; but he assured her that the union was null, for reasons which his prelates should explain to her. That any such prelates should be found might be supposed impossible; yet certain it is, that the bishops of

* By the superstition of the times, the hatred of Pedro towards his bride was said to be enchantment. A belt, richly beset with gold and precious stones, the gift of the princess, was made to appear a venomous serpent. The enchantment was attributed to Maria de Padilla. This witchcraft is mentioned in one of the romances in Depping's *Sammlung der besten Spanischen Romanzen*, and in Sanchez, bishop of Palencia, lib. iv. cap. 14. Of course it was a Jew who turned the riband, the gift of Blanche to her husband, into a serpent. Donaverat regina Petro pulcherrimam zonam auream, multis gemmis ac pretiosis lapillis ornatam, quam Petrus reginæ amore sæpe deferabat. Maria vero de Padilla, reginæ æmula, callide operata est ut zona illa ad manus magici Judaici aliquandiu, perveniret. Quam tali maleficio affecit, ut dum quadam festiva die rex illâ præcingeritur, à cunctis intuentibus et à seipso, non zonâ aureâ sed quodam horribili serpente præcinctus videretur. Rex vero merito perterritus, cum quæreret quidnam res illa esset, à nonnullis reginæ æmulis, et forsân factioni assentientibus, responsum est, zonam reginæ talem pulchritudinem peperisse. Ex qua hora Petrus infestissimam reginam habuit — *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 14. The good bishop, however, qualifies his wonderful relation by *dicunt*.

† The same authorities; with the addition of Ayala, *Cronicas de los Reyes de Castilla*, Don Pedro, Don Enrique II., Don Juan I., Don Enrique III. (in regno Don Pedro, usque ad annum v.)

Avila and Salamanca confirmed his assurances, and the credulous Juana became his dupe. This profanation of the sacrament took place in the cathedral of Salamanca in the year 1354. On the report, however, that the brother of Juana had entered into a league with his own brothers, and with the disgraced Albuquerque, both to remove the family of Padilla from his court, and to make him return to his lawful queen, he not only insultingly acquainted the new victim with the deception he had so cruelly practised on her, but abandoned her for ever. In due time a son was the issue of this short connexion.

1354. When news of this base transaction reached the brother of Juana, Fernando Perez de Castro, who was one of the most powerful lords of Galicia, he instantly joined the league of the discontented. A civil war now commenced, which, during some months, raged with more animosity than success to either party. On its commencement, the king, persuaded that the fortress of Arevalo was not a secure prison for the unfortunate Blanche, ordered her to be conveyed to Toledo, and lodged in the Alcazar of that city. In the apprehension,—no doubt a just one,—that her life was in danger, the queen, on her arrival at Toledo, requested permission from her guards to attend divine service in the cathedral. While there, her appearance so powerfully interested the congregation in her favor, that all offered to protect her at the risk of their fortunes and lives. She was immediately rescued from the power of her jailer Hinestroja, who returned to acquaint his employer with the event. Furious at the intelligence, Pedro ordered the commanders of Santiago, first to depose their grand master, his brother Fadrique; then to march on Toledo, and force the princess from her sanctuary. But she was no longer there: the whole city had taken her part, and honorably placed her, under a strong guard, in the palace of their kings. These defenders of oppressed innocence were now joined by the heads of the league, whose party daily acquired strength. Neither the sudden, perhaps suspicious, death of Albuquerque, nor the deposition of don Fadrique, depressed their zeal. To show that a redress of grievances, and not individual ambition, was their object, they dispatched messengers to the king, with the assurance of their attachment to his person, and proposed that, if he would dismiss his mistress with her kinsmen, and return to his queen, they would instantly lay down their arms. Pedro was resolved to do neither; but, as it suited his views to protract the negotiation, he nominated commissioners to treat with those of the league, which was now strengthened by the accession of the queen-mother. To bring about an amicable adjustment between her son and

his barons, she invited both to Toro, where she then abode,—an invitation which both accepted. But Pedro now found that he was the prisoner of the leaguers, who changed the officers of his household, substituted others from their own body, and closely watched his motions at the time they were treating him with the highest outward respect. To escape from his situation, he had recourse to his usual arts—to bribing some heads of the league, and, above all, to dissimulation—in both cases with success. Even Bertrand, the pope's legate, who arrived at Toro for the express purpose of checking his lawless proceedings, was deceived by him. He so strongly protested his determination to live with Blanche, and his disgust of Padilla, who, he said, was about to take the veil, that the easy legate informed his holiness that all disorders were about to cease; and, instead of excommunicating the king, cited the bishops of Avila and Salamanca to appear before the pontifical court at Rome. The king soon contrived to escape, and threw himself into the fortress of Segovia.

After his escape, Pedro assembled his states at Burgos, and, by artfully representing himself as thwarted 1355. in all his proceedings for the good of his people by his mother, his brothers, and the other rebels, whose only aim was to tyrannize over the nation, he procured supplies for carrying on the war. These supplies, however, were granted on the condition of his living with queen Blanche,—a condition which he readily promised to fulfil, without the slightest intention of so doing. After an unsuccessful assault on Toro, he returned to Toledo, the peculiar object of his hatred. Contrary to all reasonable expectation, he forced an entrance, and expelled the troops of his brother Enrique. This success would, however, have been unattainable, had not most of the inhabitants believed in the sincerity of his declaration to the pontifical representative. The unfortunate Blanche was transferred—not to his palace, to enjoy her rights as queen, but to the fortress of Sigüenza; the bishop of that see was also consigned to a prison; and some of the most obnoxious individuals of the league were beheaded or hung. The legate, Bertrand, no longer withheld the thunders of the church: Pedro, Maria de Padilla, and even Juana de Castro, were excommunicated, and the kingdom subjected to an interdict. But these thunders passed harmless over the head of the royal delinquent, who lost no time in marching against Toro, where his mother and many of the leaguers still remained. His first attempt on that place was repulsed with loss; but, after a siege of some months, he prevailed on the inhabitants, by lavishing extraordinary promises of clemency, to open their gates to him. How well he performed his promise appeared the very day of

his entrance, when he caused some barbarous executions to be made in his mother's sight. The queen fainted at the spectacle; and, on recovering her senses, requested permission to retire into Portugal, which was granted. About the same time many Castilian barons fled into Aragon.*

1355 During the next few years Pedro waged a desultory war against the king of Aragon, both by sea and land; to but the result was decisive to neither of the belligerents.

1358. In this war many of the disaffected barons fought in the ranks of the latter,—a policy, for the condemnation of which no words are sufficiently strong, and which greatly detracts from the commiseration that must be felt at the fate of some who afterwards fell into his hands. It cannot be denied that the Castilian king had many provocations to vengeance: his nobles rebelled for the slightest causes,—often without any cause at all; nor is he known to have put to death any of his subjects, whom he did not conceive, at one time or other, either openly or secretly to have aimed at subverting his authority. But the barbarity of his executions; the duplicity with which he planned the destruction of such as submitted under the assurance of pardon; his perfidious disregard of promises, or even oaths, when the openly pardoned objects of his hatred were fully in his power—not even excepting his nearest connexions; stamp him at once as a ruthless barbarian, and a bloody tyrant. The execution of his brother Fadrique, grand master of Santiago, in 1358, is, perhaps, more characteristic of him than any other of his actions. On some suspicion,—whether founded or not in justice must remain unknown,—that the grand master maintained an understanding with the king of Aragon, Fadrique was recalled from the Valencian frontier to Seville, where Pedro then was. He found the king playing at chess, in an apartment of the Alcazar, apparently in the best of humors: his reception was very friendly; and he was told to repose awhile in his posada, and return when recovered from his fatigue. Leaving the presence of his brother, he proceeded to the apartments of Maria de Padilla. She knew the fate which awaited him, and her sorrowful countenance showed, that, whatever were her other faults, she was not a woman of blood. On descending to the court of the Alcazar, he was surprised to find his attendants and mules withdrawn, and the gates carefully closed. He at once comprehended the danger of his situation; and the more so when two cavaliers descended

* Authorities,—the *Chronicon Conimbricense*; Ayala, *Cronicas de los Reyes de Castilla*; Sanchez, bishop of Palencia; Francisco Tarapha, canon of Barcelona; Alfonso of Carthagená, bishop of Burgos, nearly in the places last quoted; Zurita, *Anales de Aragon*; Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*; Ferreras, *Histoire Générale d'Espagne*, by Hermilly; with some others.

to inform him that the king wished to see him. Knowing, however, that the least appearance of distrust was not likely to mend matters, he returned to the royal apartment. As he ascended and passed along the corridors, he perceived that all the doors were shut; and even on reaching that which led into his brother's presence, he had to wait for admission: the grand master of Calatrava and Pedro Lopez de Padilla, captain of the ballasteros, arrived at the same time. On the door being opened, the king cried out to Pedro Lopez, "Seize the master!"—"Which master?" inquired the latter. "The master of Santiago," was the reply. The captain then approached him and said, "Surrender!" then turning to some ballasteros who stood near him, the tyrant cried, "Kill the master of Santiago!" The command to murder a brother seemed so impossible to these men, that, instead of immediately complying, they stood staring at each other. "Traitors!" cried one of the attendants, who was in the horrible secret, "why do ye delay? Do ye not hear the king's command?" Raising their maces, they approached Fadrique, who bounded from them into the corridor, followed by his assassins: there he endeavored to draw his sword, but could not, the cross breaking in his hands. The destined victim now ran from one end of the corridor to the other, to avoid the ponderous blows of the macemen: but, at length, one struck him on the head, and he fell on the floor, when two others came up and plunged their poniards into him. Seeing him fall, the king left the corridor, in search of some of Fadrique's attendants, whom he resolved to visit with the same fate. One only was to be found, who, for better security, had taken refuge in the apartments of Maria de Padilla; and, when pursued by the murderers of his master, had taken in his arms one of the tyrant's daughters, whom he held before him as a defence. That defence availed him little: the girl was forced from him, and the dagger of Pedro found a way to his heart.

No sooner was this horrid deed committed, than the tyrant sent orders for the execution of several knights in various cities of the kingdom; and to show his exultation, he insisted on dining in the very room in which lay the bleeding corpse of his murdered brother. He then called for his cousin don Juan, infante of Aragon, to whom he communicated his intention of executing his brother don Tello, governor of Biscay, and of bestowing the lordship on Juan. The king and the prince departed the very same day for that province; but, on reaching Aguilar, they found that the prince had been apprized of his intended doom, and had fled. Pedro followed him to Bermeo, where he learned that the fugitive had just embarked for Bayonne. In his blind fury he embarked in the

first vessel he found in the harbor, and ordered a pursuit; but the sea began to rise so high, that he soon abandoned it, and returned to the port. The infante Juan now requested the fulfilment of the royal promise; but he who had made it had now changed his mind. With his usual duplicity, however, he amused his cousin, saying that he could do nothing without the states of the province; that he would speedily convoke them, and procure the recognition of the new feudatory. He did convoke them; but it was to persuade them to confer their sovereignty on himself alone. The disappointed claimant now left Pedro in disgust; but was speedily recalled to Bilbao, where the king repaired, by the promise that his ambition should be gratified. The infante hastened to that town, and proceeded to the house occupied by the court. As he approached the royal apartments, some of the tyrant's creatures, as if in jest, deprived him of his poniard,—the only weapon which he had about him, and, at the same moment, he was struck on the head by a mace: another blow brought him lifeless to the ground: His corpse was thrown from the window of the apartment occupied by the king into the street; but was afterwards conveyed to Burgos, and cast into the river.

1359 To revenge the murder of these victims, the two
brothers, Enrique and Tello, who had returned to Ara-
gon, made frequent irruptions into Castile. In a battle
1361. fought in 1359, they triumphed over Hinestroja, whom
they left dead on the field; and, in subsequent invasions, they
obtained no small portion of plunder.* But none of these things
moved the king, who persevered in his course of barbarities as
if his throne rested on a rock of adamant. It is impossible to
specify all his individual acts of murder; such only can be
represented here as are either more than usually characteristic
of him, or as exercised some influence on following events: in
revenge for the aid afforded to his revolted subjects by the in-
fante of Aragon, he put to death the dowager queen of that
country, who had long resided in Castile, and who, in addition,
was his own aunt. But his famous, or rather infamous, com-
pact with the Portuguese king, Pedro, is most indicative of the
man. Knowing how much that sovereign longed to extirpate
all who had been concerned in the murder of Inés de Castro,†

* While Pedro was at Najera, for the purpose of protecting his frontiers against these irruptions, a priest of San Domingo de la Calzada is said to have waited on him, and foretold that, unless he kept on his guard, he would be assassinated by his brother Enrique. "Who has advised you to tell me this?" asked the king. "No one," replied the priest, "except San Domingo." Pedro regarded this as some "weak invention of the enemy," and caused the priest to be burnt alive.

This anecdote, true or false, is extracted from the chronicle of the contemporary Lopez de Ayala.

† The fate of this lady, which has so frequently occupied the tragic muse of the Peninsula, must be looked for in the history of Portugal.

and of whom a few had sought refuge in Castile; and no less eager on his own part to take vengeance on three or four of his own obnoxious subjects, who had implored the protection of the Portuguese; he proposed to surrender the Portuguese in exchange for the Castilian refugees. The kindred soul of the Lusitanian felt a savage joy at the proposal: in 1360, the men were exchanged and put to death. To commiserate the murderers of doña Iñes is impossible, however we may execrate the perfidy with which the sacred laws of hospitality were sacrificed to a dark revenge. That the king of Castile contented himself with merely banishing the archbishop of Toledo, the friend and protector of Blanche de Bourbon, was probably owing to the fear—not of the pope, whose power he despised, but—of his own people, who, however submissive to his will on most occasions, would not tamely have witnessed the murder of their primate. That he cared as little for the king of France as for the pope,—both were distant enemies,—Spain had a melancholy proof, in 1361, in the tragical death of that unhappy queen. His orders for her removal by poison were first given to the governor of Xeres, to whom the custody of her person had for some time been intrusted; but that governor, whose name (Íñigo Ortiz de Zuniga) ought to be revered by posterity, refused to become the executioner of his queen. It is somewhat surprising that his life was not the penalty of his disobedience,—a doom which he doubtless expected. A less scrupulous agent for this bloody business was found in one of the king's ballasteros, Juan Perez de Robledo, who hastened to the fortress, superseded the noble Íñigo Ortiz in the command, and perpetrated the deed,—whether by poison or by steel is unknown. The same violence befell Isabel de Lara, widow of the infante don Juan, whom the tyrant had murdered at Bilbao. The fate of Blanche de Bourbon must powerfully excite the sympathy of every reader.*

The death of Blanche was followed by the natural
 one of the king's mistress, Maria de Padilla. Whether
 through the example of the Portuguese sovereign, who
 had shortly before proclaimed his secret marriage with
 Iñes de Castro; or whether because the Castilian had in like
 manner actually married Maria; certain it is, that, in 1362,—
 immediately after the murder of the king of Granada by his

* Ayala, *Cronicas de los Reyes de Castilla* (in regno Don Pedro, usque ad annum xlii.). *Chronicon Conimbricense* (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, xxiii. 343—346.). Rodericus Santius, *Episcopus Palentinus*, *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 14. and 15. Alfonsus à Carthagera, *Episcopus Burgen-sis*, *Anacephaleosis*, cap. 88. Franciscus Tarapha, *Canonicus Barcionensis*, *De Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 563. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* (in regno Don Pedro IV.). Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. iv. liv. 17.

own hand,*—Pedro convoked the cortes at Seville, and declared that Maria de Padilla had been his lawful wife, and that for this reason alone he had refused to live with Blanche de Bourbon: he therefore required that his son Alfonso should be declared his legitimate successor. Three of the king's creatures were brought forward, who swore on the holy Gospels that they had been present at the nuptials; and the cortes, though far from convinced of the fact, affected to receive it as such, declared Maria the queen, and Alfonso the heir, of the kingdom; and, after him, the daughters of their monarch by that favorite. If such a marriage were really contracted, Blanche was deceived as well as Juana de Castro; but, from want of sufficient evidence, history can place the French princess only in the rank of Castilian queens. The man who had imposed on the credulity of doña Juana—who had broken his faith whenever it suited his views—whose character was as much distinguished for duplicity as for violence—must produce some better voucher than his word, or his oath, or those of his creatures, before he will obtain credit with posterity.

1363 It was to defend himself against the probable ven-
 geance of France, and the present hostility of Aragon,
 to that, in 1363, Pedro sought the alliance of our Edward
 1366. III. and the heroic Black Prince. The danger was the
 more to be apprehended, when the king of Navarre joined his
 brother of Aragon. For some time the advantage lay on the
 side of the Castilian; who, early in 1364, reduced several
 towns in Valencia, and invested the capital of that province;
 the siege of which, however, he was soon compelled to raise.
 But these temporary successes were more than counterbalanced
 by the activity of Enrique; who, in 1365, prevailed on Ber-
 trand du Guesclin, the count de la Marche, and other French
 chiefs, to aid him in his projected dethronement of the Cas-
 tilian tyrant. The French king, Charles V., anxious to avenge
 the cruel insult done to his royal house, espoused the cause of
 Enrique, and commanded his disbanded soldiers to serve in the
 expedition destined against Castile. To meet it, Pedro, in 1366,
 assembled his troops at Burgos. He had not long to wait:
 under some noted leaders, the French soon entered Catalonia;
 were favorably received by their ally the king of Aragon; and
 reached Calahorra unmolested, the gates of which were speedily
 opened to them. There Enrique was solemnly proclaimed king
 of Castile.

1366. The inactivity of Pedro on the invasion of his king-
 dom was such, as to leave it a doubtful point with pos-
 terity whether he was a coward, or whether he knew too well

* See section i. chap. iii. of the present volume.

the disaffection of his people to hazard a battle with the enemy. In opposition to the urgent remonstrances of the inhabitants, he precipitately left Burgos for Seville, without venturing a conflict with his aspiring brother. Enrique hastened to the abandoned city, where he was joyfully received by many deputies of the towns, and crowned in the monastery of Huelgas. With the money he found in the Alcazar, and the presents made him by the Jewish inhabitants, he was able to gratify his followers; their chiefs he rewarded more nobly: thus, to Du Guesclin he gave the lordship of Molina and Trastamara; and to our countryman, Hugh de Calverley, who, with the former, had the chief command of the auxiliaries, the city and lordship of Carrion: on his brother Tello he conferred the sovereignty of Biscay; on Sancho, another brother, that of Albuquerque and Ledesma. He now lost no time in pursuing the fugitive Pedro. Presenting himself before Toledo, he summoned that important place to surrender; which, after some deliberation, obeyed the summons. There he was joined by deputies from Avila, Segovia, Madrid, Cuenza, Ciudad Real, with the submission of those towns. He was now master of the whole of New Castile.

The rapidity of these successes convinced the guilty 1366. Pedro that his own subjects alone would form but a poor rampart against the assaults of his brother. To procure the aid of Portugal, he sent his daughter Beatrix, now the heiress of his states (his son Alfonso was no more), into that country, with a great treasure as her marriage portion, for the infante don Fernando, to whom she had been promised. He was himself soon obliged to follow her: an insurrection of the Sevillians, who openly declared for Enrique, inspiring the detested tyrant with a just dread of his life, he fled into the territories of his uncle and ally. But here new mortifications awaited him: the Portuguese returned both his daughter and his treasures, on the pretext that, the states of Castile having acknowledged Enrique, the latter had no wish to plunge the two kingdoms into war: all that he could obtain was permission to pass through the Portuguese territory,—he durst not venture into Estremadura,—into Galicia. No sooner was he arrived at Monterey, than the archbishop of Santiago, Fernando de Castro, and other Galician lords, joined him, and advised him to try the fortune of arms; especially as Zamora, Soria, Logroño, and other cities, still held for him: but, though they offered to aid him with 2000 foot and 500 horse, either through cowardice or distrust, he rejected the proposal, and set out for Santiago, with the resolution of proceeding thence to Coruña, and embarking for Bayonne, to join his ally the prince of Wales.

Pedro reached the city of Santiago about the middle of June. While there, he resolved on the murder of the archbishop,—a resolution almost too extraordinary to be explained, yet sufficiently characteristic of the man; who, whenever blood was to be shed, or plunder to be procured, little troubled himself about reasons for his conduct. Perhaps the prelate had reproved him for his past crimes, and besought him to amend his life; perhaps he distrusted don Suero, as he did, indeed, almost every human being: certain it is, that the archbishop was obnoxious to him as a native of Toledo,—a city which had incurred his hatred, not only by its generous defence of queen Blanche, but by its recognition of Enrique. But his most powerful motive for this atrocious deed was his desire to obtain the towns and fortresses of don Suero. Under the pretence of urgent business, he sent for the prelate, who had retired to a country-seat near the city, and who immediately obeyed the summons. At the gates of the city, don Suero was met by twenty horsemen, who escorted him to the door of the church, where Pedro stood, as if to receive him. Here he was suddenly pierced to the heart by their lances; the dean who accompanied him shared the same fate; the church was then robbed,—a fit consummation of this bloody deed. The fortresses of the murdered prelate were immediately occupied. The assassin, leaving them, as well as the support of his interests, to the care of Fernando de Castro, proceeded with his daughter to Coruña, where, with a fleet of twenty-two sail, he embarked for Bayonne. Thus, in three short months, without a single battle on either side, was this cowardly tyrant deprived of a powerful kingdom. It may, however, be doubted whether the majority of the people cared much for either prince: on them the fantastic cruelties of Pedro fell harmless: indeed, there is room for believing, that, whatever were his cruelties towards his obnoxious, and usually rebellious, barons, he caused justice to be impartially administered, and wished no unnecessary imposts to be laid on the great towns.

1366. The exiled king was well received by the English hero, who undertook to restore him to his throne. The treaty into which the two princes had entered rendered the aid of Edward almost imperative: besides, it was his interest to oppose the close ally of France; and his own personal ambition was not a little gratified by the offer of the lordship of Biscay, with 56,000 florins of gold for his own use, and 550,000 for the support of his army. To insure the punctual performance of the other conditions, Pedro delivered his daughters as hostages into the hands of the Black Prince. The enterprise

was sanctioned by the English monarch, and the necessary preparations immediately commenced.*

In the mean time Enrique had been joyfully received at Seville, and acknowledged by the whole of Andalusia. In that city he found a considerable treasure, which the inhabitants had wrested from the fugitive king, and with which he paid his mercenaries previous to dismissing them. The dismissal of so many supporters was a great error: for though he could reckon on a considerable portion of his subjects arming in his favor, he could not calculate on all—perhaps not on a moiety: for many stood aloof from disinclination, more still from an unwillingness to join in a civil war; and he knew that the formidable prince Edward was preparing to support his rival. Seeing himself thus master of the kingdom, except Galicia, he marched to reduce it. He closely invested Fernando de Castro in the city of Lugo; but hearing of the preparations made by the Plantagenet, he entered into a treaty with Fernando, in which the latter agreed to surrender the place, if no succor arrived before Christmas-day; and Enrique, in return for this submission, promised to confer on Fernando the lordship of Castro-Xeriz. From Lugo the king proceeded to Burgos, where he convened his states, and obtained the necessary supplies for the defence of the kingdom. He renewed his alliance with the king of Aragon; and, in an interview with the sovereign of Navarre, on the confines of the two monarchies, he prevailed on the latter, for a gift of 60,000 pistoles, and by the promise of two fortresses, to refuse a passage to the prince of Wales. No sooner, however, was the king of Navarre returned to Pampeluna, than he received messengers from the dethroned Pedro, who offered to put him in possession of Alava and Guipiscoa, with the two important places of Logroño and Vittoria, if he would suffer the English prince to march through his territories unmolested. Charles had no difficulty in accepting the latter proposition, as he had accepted the former.

The preparations of the English prince being completed early in the spring of 1367, he passed the Pyrenees at Roncesvaux, and descended into the plains of Navarre. In his combined army of English, Normans, and Gascons, were some of the flower of English chivalry. Instead of opposing his passage, Charles secretly desired Oliver de

* Lopez de Ayala, *Cronicas de los Reyes de Castilla* (in regno Don Pedro, usque ad annum xvi.). Froissart, *Chronicles of England, &c.* by Johnes, vol. iii. chap. 230. Rodericus Santius, *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 17. Franciscus Tarapha, *De Regibus Hispanie*, p. 563. Alfonsus à Carthagena, *Anacephaleosis*, cap. 88. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* (in regno Don Pedro IV.). Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. iv. liv. 17. Ferreras, *Histoire Générale d'Espagne*, by Hermilly, tom. v.

Manny, one of Edward's generals, to seize him (the king of Navarre) while hunting in a certain place, and make him prisoner: by this contrivance he hoped to excuse his inactivity to Enrique. Oliver did as directed, and the English prince pursued his march towards the Castilian frontiers. He was joined by sir Hugh de Calverley, who preferred the loss of the new lordship of Carrion to violating a vassal's faith by bearing arms against his natural chief. Enrique also advanced; but so well was he acquainted with the valor of his renowned antagonist, that he was undetermined whether he should do more than hover round the flanks of the invaders, cut off their supplies, and force them, by famine, to return. In a council of war, however, which he assembled to hear the opinion of his officers as to the plan of the campaign, his Castilian chiefs so justly convinced him, that, if he refused the battle, several towns would immediately declare for Pedro, that he resolved to risk all. No wonder that he should; for if, as Froissart informs us, his army was near 70,000 strong, he might well have little fear as to the result. One of his detachments had the advantage over a foraging party of the allies. On the 2d of April, the two hostile armies met, west of Logroño, a few miles south of the Ebro. The Castilians immediately occupied the vicinity of Najera: the allies encamped at Navarrete. To spare the effusion of Christian blood, Edward sent a letter, by a herald, to the camp of Enrique,* explaining the just causes which had armed the English monarch in defence of an ally and a relation; but offering, at the same time, to mediate between the two parties. His letter, which was addressed, "To the noble and powerful prince Enrique, count of Trastamara," not to the king of Castile, was courteously received by Enrique. In his reply, he dwelt on the cruelties and oppressions of Pedro's government, whose expulsion he represented as the act of an indignant nation, and expressed his resolution to maintain both that nation's rights and his own by the sword.

1367. The battle which decided the fate of the two kings, commenced the following morning, April the 3d. The war-cry of "Guienne and St. George!" on the one side, and of "Castile and Santiago!" on the other, were soon drowned by the clash of arms, the shouts of the victors, and the groans of the dying. The struggle was for a short time desperate: but who could contend with the victor of Cressy and Poitiers? A fierce charge on the left wing of Enrique by the prince in person, so terrified don Tello, who commanded a

* Froissart (chap. 235.) says, that Enrique first wrote to the Black Prince, expressing astonishment at the invasion. This writer is very ill informed on the affairs of Spain.

body of cavalry, that he fled from the field; perhaps he was as treacherous as cowardly. Enrique fought nobly; so also did his antagonist, who, like his celebrated counterpart, Richard III. of England, was as brave as he was cruel. But after the flight of don Tello, the infantry of Castile began to give way; and, after some desperate efforts by Enrique to support the contest, resistance was abandoned. The number of slain, however, on the part of the vanquished, was only 8000; a fact not very honorable to them. Many thousands were made prisoners, all but a handful who accompanied the defeated count into Aragon, whence he escaped into France. Success so splendid is seldom to be found in the annals of history: it at once restored Pedro to the Castilian throne. England, fruitful as she has been in heroes, can boast of few such glorious fields. But the heroic victor met with little gratitude from his faithless ally: as on a former occasion, the states of Biscay were secretly advised not to accept him for their ruler; and it was not without difficulty that he could obtain from Pedro an oath that the money due to his troops should be paid at two instalments,—the first in four, the second in twelve months.* But what most disgusted the humane conqueror, was, the eagerness which the restored king showed to shed the blood of the prisoners. This he disdained to permit: he severely upbraided the tyrant for cherishing so sanguinary a disposition. "Of what use, then, has been your aid?" inquired this second Nero. "Unless I punish the rebels, they will again join Enrique, and the victory will be useless!" The tyrant, however, was forced to bend before the mastermind of Edward, and to refrain from shedding blood so long as he remained in Castile. That stay was but of short continuance: having made peace between the kings of Castile and Aragon, and admonished the former to procure the love of the people, he returned to Guienne.

From Burgos, where he had separated from the Black Prince, Pedro proceeded to Toledo, where he 1367.
put to death some obnoxious individuals: far greater horrors he perpetrated in person at Cordova, and by his emissaries at Seville. He breathed utter destruction against all who had shown any zeal in the service of Enrique, especially if they happened to have any wealth with which he might fill his empty coffers. No wonder that such as were thus menaced should combine to resist him, and that several towns which had watched his conduct should declare again for Enrique,

* It is probable that a portion of the first instalment was paid to the Black Prince before his departure from Burgos. His treasures remained in that city with a portion of the troops, until August, which was about four months from his entrance into the kingdom.

who was invited to strike a second blow for the crown. That prince soon interested in his favor both the king of France and the pope: from both he received a considerable present in money, with which he purchased arms and raised followers. His preparations were not unknown to the prince of Wales; but the latter had learned too much of Pedro's character to take any further interest in that tyrant's affairs: he thenceforward stood aloof from both parties; nor, though entreated by the kings of Aragon and Navarre to join with them in profiting by the dissensions of the two rivals, would he stoop to such rapacity. He was naturally willing to secure both the advantages which had been promised to himself, and the punctual payment of the instalments; but beyond negotiations and remonstrances for such end, he had no concern in the events which followed.*

1367. Towards the close of the year, (1367,) Enrique entered Spain by Roussillon, at the head of a very small force, not exceeding 400 lances. At first the king of Aragon attempted to arrest his progress through that kingdom, but with little zeal: the soldiers sent to oppose him connived at his passage into Navarre. Having passed the Ebro at Azagra, and set foot on the Castilian territory, he drew a cross on the sand, and by it swore that he would not desist from his undertaking while life remained. The neighboring inhabitants of Calahorra readily received him within their walls. He was there joined by many of the Castilian barons with considerable reinforcements, and by the archbishop of Toledo. His reception at Burgos was no less satisfactory. The example of this city constrained Cordova, which had suffered so much from the blood-thirsty Pedro, to declare for him. But he did not immediately proceed to the south: he turned his arms against some of the fortresses in Old Castile: Leon was besieged and taken; the Asturias submitted; Illescas, Buytrago, and Madrid opened their gates after a short struggle; and Toledo, which promised a more obstinate resistance, was invested. It is useful to observe, that the resistance of these places was the work of the citizens, who were generally attached to Pedro; while the barons and hidalgos† were generally for Enrique. This circumstance gives great weight to the suspicion, that, while Pedro ruled the privileged orders with an iron sceptre, he favored the independence of the people.

1368. The success of the invader roused Pedro to something like activity in defence of his tottering crown. His ally, the king of Granada, was persuaded to arm in his behalf; and to join him with 6000 horse and 30,000 foot. His own

* The same authorities.

† Hijo de algo, son of something; easily corrupted into hidalgo.

troops did not much exceed 7000; but the united force was formidable. Cordova was immediately assaulted by the two kings: but the defence was so vigorous, and the loss on the part of the besiegers so severe, that the enterprise was soon abandoned. The troops of Mohammed V. returned to Granada; and though they afterwards took the field, they did so, not so much to aid their ally, as to derive some advantage to themselves from the confusion of the times. The operations of the war were now very desultory, though destructive to the kingdom. In the north, Vittoria, Salvatierra, Logroño, and some other places which held for Pedro, submitted to the king of Navarre in preference to Enrique,—so great was their repugnance to that champion of feudal tyranny. Toledo manfully resisted his assaults. To relieve that important city, which had now been invested nearly twelve months, Pedro left Seville early in March, 1369, and passed by Calatrava towards Montiel, with the intention of waiting for some reinforcements advancing from Murcia, before he ventured an action with his rival. His motions were already watched by the count of Trastamara, who called a council of war, in which it was decided that the latter should leave a small force to prosecute the siege; and, with the rest, force Pedro to accept battle before the arrival of the expected succors. At this time, Bertrand du Guesclin arrived from France with an aid of 600 lances. Enrique now put his little army in motion; was joined by the grand master of Santiago; and, arriving at Montiel with incredible dispatch, he fell on the outposts of his rival, and forced them precipitately into the fortress.

With a very inadequate force, Pedro was now besieged in this place, and cut off from all supplies, which yet reached Enrique every hour. What added to his difficulties, was the want of provisions and of water; so that his men began to desert one by one to the enemy, or retire to their respective homes. In this critical situation, he meditated the means of escape. One of his knights, Mendo Rodriguez, who was on intimate terms with Bertrand du Guesclin, addressed his friend from the ramparts, and expressed a wish to see him in secret. Du Guesclin assented, and told him to come that very night to the tent. Rodriguez was punctual to the engagement. On the part of his royal master, he offered his friend the hereditary possession of Soria, Almazan, Monteagudo, Atienza, Deza, and Moron, with 200,000 doubloons in gold, if the Breton knight would assist Pedro to escape. The knight replied, that he could not accept the proposal, as he served in this war by order of his natural lord, the king of France. Rodriguez, however, advised him to think farther of the proposal, which he promised to do, and left him. He communicated it

to his friends; observing, at the same time, that he should do nothing contrary to the interests of Enrique, and asked them whether it ought not to be mentioned to that prince. They urged him to open the whole affair to Enrique; and he followed their counsel. The count thanked him for his fidelity, and said that he should have all that had been promised him, and even more, if he would draw Pedro to his tent, and acquaint Enrique with the circumstance the moment it happened. We are told that his soul revolted at the proposed treachery, but that his scruples were removed by his friends, who urged him to accept a proposal which would at once end the war and make him rich. The facility with which he consented to stain his knightly faith,—to bring everlasting infamy on his name,—may well raise a doubt whether he really felt the repugnance he pretended. However this may be, he assured Mendo Rodriguez that he would provide for the safety of the king: and it was arranged that Pedro should leave the fortress on the evening of March 23d; that he should repair to the Breton's tent, and be escorted to a place of safety. At the hour appointed, accompanied by three of his confidential knights, the king silently repaired to the tent of his base betrayer. On arriving, he dismounted for a moment, and said to Du Guesclin, "Let us away!" As no reply was made, he suspected the truth, and attempted to remount; but he was detained by one of the Breton's attendants. At the same moment Enrique, who had been made acquainted with his victim's arrival, entered the tent, but did not at first know his brother,—so great was the alteration which a few years had made in that brother's appearance. "There is your enemy!" said one of the attendants, pointing to the king: even yet he doubted, until Pedro cried out, "I am, I am!" Enrique then drew his dagger, and wounded the king in the face. Both now grappled, and fell to the ground; but the struggle was of short duration: the count was fully armed, and, probably, aided by his satellites; and his poniard or theirs soon deprived the prostrate monarch of life.

According to a Catalonian quoted by Zurita, if Pedro had not been unarmed, he would have prevailed over the count; that the count was underneath the king; but that the latter, being wounded by one of Enrique's attendants, lost his hold, and enabled his rival to rise and dispatch him.*

* Lopez de Ayala, *Cronica del Rey Don Pedro* (the last five years). Froissart, *Chronicles of England, &c.*, by Johnes, vol. iii. chap. 226—243. *Chronicon Contimbricense* (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, xxiii. 347.). Franciscus Tarapha, *de Regibus Hispanie*, p. 363. Alfonsus à Carthagena, *Anacephalæosis*, cap. 88. Rodericus Santius, *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 16, 17, and 18. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.) Zurita, *Anales de Aragon*, lib. x. (in Regno Don Pedro IV.). Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. v. liv. 18.

Froissart says that there was a great battle before Montiel previous to

In recent times, attempts have been made by Mondejar, and other historical critics, to vindicate the memory of this king, on the ground that his chronicler and contemporary, Pedro Lopez de Ayala, was a blind partisan of his rival's, and has injuriously treated his memory. They tell us of a chronicle of this king, written by don Juan de Castro, bishop of Jaen, in which Pedro is represented as one of the best sovereigns of the age,—as one who, while he protected the oppressed, was severe only against his turbulent and lawless barons. There may be some truth in this latter assertion: Pedro, like our Richard III., whom he partially resembles, was probably no enemy to the humbler orders, but eager only to break the formidable power of the nobles. Even admitting, what is very probable, that his character has been somewhat unfairly treated by Ayala, if one half the deeds narrated by that author were actually perpetrated by him,—and the careful minuteness with which they are recorded gives them the appearance of authenticity,—he has had but one equal in ferocity, and that one was the tsar Ivan IV. of Russia.* Until Castro's pretended chronicle is actually produced,—and it has been sought for in vain these 300 years,—and compared with Ayala, criticism is compelled to receive the testimony of the latter, confirmed, as it incidentally is, by Froissart and other contemporary writers. That he was a man of lust, as well as of cruelty, is apparent from the number of his mistresses, to say nothing of his two pretended wives.† Of his numerous issue, two daughters married into the royal family of England: Constanza, who espoused John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster; and Isabel, the wife of Edward duke of York.

ENRIQUE II. was the second and last monarch of illegitimate birth that ever reigned in Castile and Leon. 1369.

Pedro's death; that Pedro, on attempting to escape, with eleven attendants, from the castle, was taken prisoner by one of the enemy; who, however, promised to protect his escape; that he was conducted to a tent, which Enrique soon entered, saying, "Where is this son of a w——e who calls himself king of Castile?" that Pedro replied, "Thou art the w——e's son: I am the son of king Alfonso!" that Pedro then grappled with Enrique, whom he threw to the ground, and whom he would have soon dispatched, but for the interference of Enrique's creatures. There can be no doubt that Pedro was foully murdered, and that the guilt must rest on more heads than one.

* See Karamsin, *Histoire de Russie*, tom. x. xi.

† One of these mistresses, Alfonsina Coronel, was disgraced for daring to put in confinement Hinestroja, uncle of Maria de Padilla. A lady of that name, who had taken refuge in the convent of St. Clair, at Seville, escaped his brutality by disfiguring her countenance.

Pedro's character was not wholly depraved; at least his manners were sometimes of a different kind. "Sed et quibusdam animi artibus non caruit, si illis recte uti voluisset. Fuit enim ingenio velox, astutus, et affabilis, in persuadendo promptus et dulcis, armis denique strenuus, in congregiando primus, rebus bellicis tritus, superbos atque inobedientes, raptos, viarumque insidiatores, miro modo persequabatur."—*Rodericus Santius*.

It would be difficult to discover the ground on which this prince claimed the crown: if the daughters of Pedro were illegitimate, they yet stood nearer to the throne than himself. The only lawful heir to the Castilian crown, according to the straight line of succession, was Fernando, king of Portugal, grandson of the princess Beatrix, daughter of Sancho the Brave, king of Castile, who was married to Alfonso IV. of Portugal. To the sober-judging Castilians, the right of that prince seemed so clear, that not a few, and those of the first distinction, hastened to do homage to him as their lawful sovereign; and several cities of Leon, with most of Galicia, declared for him. The encouragement thus given to his just pretensions, caused him to assume the title of king of Castile and Leon, as well as of Portugal, and to prepare considerable armaments, both by sea and land, for the purpose of enforcing them. That the opportunity of for ever uniting the two countries was lost before national prejudices were rendered inveterate by time, must ever be deplored by Europe.

1370 The difficulties with which the usurper had to contend were of no common order. Besides the places
 1372. ^{to} which recognized the Portuguese, Logroño, Vittoria, Salvatierra, and Campezo, still adhered to Charles of Navarre; Molina and Requeña placed themselves under the protection of Aragon; and Carmona refused, when summoned, to receive Enrique. Add to this, that Mohammed of Granada refused his alliance, but entered into one with king Fernando; and that Pedro of Aragon openly joined it, in consideration of Murcia and some fortresses in Castile; and his situation will appear sufficiently precarious. But, if he had no other virtues, he had courage; and he resolutely prepared to vindicate his illegitimate authority. After an ineffectual attempt to procure the submission of Carmona, he assembled his troops at Toledo, reduced Requeña by means of his generals, and with a considerable force marched on Zamora, which he also hoped to reduce. Hearing, however, that Fernando was advancing on Coruña, he bent his steps towards Galicia: but as the Portuguese, on learning his approach, hastily retreated, he turned aside into that kingdom, took Braga and some minor fortresses, and returned. No sooner had he retired, than detached bands of Portuguese penetrated into Estremadura, on various points, and committed destructive ravages. He contrived, however, to preserve his frontier places both on the side of Portugal and of Aragon. Early in 1370, he had the still greater good fortune of defeating a powerful armament by sea, which Fernando had sent to the mouth of the Gaudalquivir. The following year he prosecuted with vigor the siege of Carmona, which had been some time invested, and which began to suffer from

want of provisions. In an attempt to escalate the walls, some of his soldiers were taken prisoners, and put to death by the governor, Martin Lopez, who had also the guardianship of Pedro's children, and who was faithfully attached to the memory of that prince. This irritated Enrique, who resolved on a perfidious revenge. After a long and heroic defence, don Martin proposed to capitulate, on condition of his life and liberty being guarantied; a condition which the king swore on the holy gospels to fulfil. No sooner was the latter in possession of the place, than he sent that brave officer, together with the chancellor of Pedro, to Seville, where both were speedily beheaded by his order. The same year, through the interference of the papal legate, he obtained peace from Portugal, and recovered two places from the king of Navarre. No less fortunate was it for him that Pedro of Aragon was too much occupied in domestic affairs to disturb his tranquillity. At sea, too, his fleet was victorious over an English squadron which advanced against his ally the French king. It was to repair this check, as well as to gratify his own personal ambition, that our duke of Lancaster, who had just married Constanza, daughter of Pedro the Cruel, assumed the title of king of Castile, and prepared to invade the kingdom. The strangest circumstance of all is, that, in 1372, Fernando of Portugal, whose pretensions were so superior, should league himself with the duke.

The obscure, though continued hostilities which followed, merit little attention: the advantage of one day was neutralized by the reverse of the next. In 1373, indeed, Enrique penetrated as far as Lisbon; but he reduced no place of consequence; and he soon returned to his dominions with the barren glory of having insulted his royal enemy. The same year, after an unimportant advantage over the Portuguese, in Galicia, the two kings, through the mediation of the pope,—the unceasing friend of peace, like many who have occupied the same dignity,—were persuaded to end, if not their animosity, their open opposition, and even to agree on a double matrimonial alliance.* But the duke of Lancaster was not so easily pacified: in alliance sometimes with Navarre, and always at variance with France and Castile, this prince was actuated, both by public and personal considerations, to persevere in his hostility. He soon found, however, that little reliance was to be placed on his peninsular allies, who veered from one side to another with every wind; though he was constant in his great project,—that of dethroning the usurper,—he was long unable even to attempt its execution.

* Sancho, brother of Enrique, and, consequently, a bastard, espoused Beatrix, sister to Fernando: on arriving at a suitable age, a natural daughter of Fernando was to be bestowed on a bastard of Enrique.

His armaments were always required in France: it was, indeed, the great object of Enrique to occupy the English in that country; and, with this view, he frequently dispatched aid to the French king. The Castilian succeeded, during his own life, in averting from his kingdom the scourge of foreign invasion; but, as we shall soon perceive, it arrived under his son.

In the schism which afflicted the church, from the rival pretensions of Urban VI. and the anti-pope Clement, Enrique declared for neither,—doubtless, to gratify his avarice by withholding the customary contributions to the papal see. He died in 1379. In character he was as cruel as Pedro: as loose in morals, and scarcely inferior as a tyrant. On the whole, however, he was a fortunate ruler. Either by bribes or force, he reduced Galicia to obedience, recovered several places from the king of Navarre, whose capital he at one time invested, and overawed his neighbors of Portugal and Aragon.*

1379. JUAN I. followed his father's advice, by cultivating the friendship of the French king, whom he frequently assisted in the interminable wars between that monarch and the English. Like his father, he had also to dread the pretensions of the duke of Lancaster; and it was equally his aim to occupy the ambitious Plantagenet with other affairs than disputing his succession.

1380 To preserve Portugal as an ally, Juan, in the second year of his reign, consented or proposed to marry his to infant son Enrique with Beatrix, presumptive heiress 1383. of the Lusitanian crown. This princess, who was in her tenth year, had been promised to Fadrique, brother of the Castilian king; but the superior pretensions of Enrique induced the Portuguese monarch to prefer the latter for a son-in-law. One condition of the projected marriage was, that, in case either of the young betrothed died without issue, the other should inherit the states of the deceased. So fair a prospect of uniting the two crowns could not fail to be agreeable to the two sovereigns; but the best laid designs often end in disappointment, especially when the interests involved are of more than ordinary magnitude. Notwithstanding this solemn treaty, Fernando of Portugal,—for what cause it would

* Lopez de Ayala, *Cronica del Rey Don Enrique II.* (fol. 140—163.). Froissart, *Chronicles of England, &c.* by Johnes, vol. iv. passim. Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* (in *Regno Don Pedro IV.*). Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. v. liv. 18. Favyn, *Histoire de Navarre* (*Règne de Charles I.*). *Chronicon Conimbricense* (apud Florez, *España Sagrada*, xxiii. 347—351.). Rodericus Santius, *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 19. Alfonsus à Carthagena, *Anacephalæosis*, cap. 89. Franciscus Tarapha, *De Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 564. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). Ferreras, *Histoire Générale d'Espagne*, (by Hermilly,) tom. v.

be vain to inquire,*—secretly resolved to make war on Castile; and, with the view of strengthening himself by the alliance of the duke of Lancaster, he dispatched a trusty messenger to obtain the co-operation of that prince, who readily promised it. Juan, who was soon acquainted with the league, resolved to anticipate his enemy: off cape St. Vincent his fleet triumphed, in 1381, over that of Fernando; and Almeida was forced to submit to him. The arrival from England of the earl of Cambridge, brother of the duke, with 500 men-at-arms, and as many archers, roused the courage of the Portuguese, but did them little service. As the allies could obtain no money from Fernando, they did not scruple to lay their hands on whatever they pleased: hence the distrust and dislike which arose between them and the natives, and which neutralized the little success obtained by their combined arms.† Wearied alike with his allies and the war, Fernando, in 1382, solicited and obtained peace, and the English returned home. The death of the queen of Castile leaving Enrique a widower, Fernando offered him the princess Beatrix, who had been successively promised to his brother, to his two sons, and even to the son of the earl of Cambridge; on condition, however, that the issue of the marriage, whether male or female, should be the sovereign of Portugal, and that he himself should have no share in the administration so long as Leonora, the Portuguese queen, should survive Fernando. This condition, so characteristic of Portuguese dislike of Castilian sway, did not prevent Juan from marrying the princess. Fernando died the very year of this marriage; and his death opened the door to new hostilities.

Though Juan and his new queen were, in fact, excluded by the treaty accompanying their union, he no less eagerly claimed the crown in her right; and several of the Portuguese nobles admitted the justice of that claim. Even the widowed queen, Leonora, caused her daughter to be proclaimed in the capital; but the bulk of the towns and prelates refused to acknowledge her, and declared

1383
to
1385.

* Lemos (v. 85.) assigns ambition and the hope of vengeance (a emulacao da sua fortuna para elle tam contraria, os desejos da vinganza na primeira conjunctura favoravel para ella,) as the cause; but, unlike most chroniclers of his country, this excellent author—*more Robertsoni*—often allows his imagination to supply the place of authority.

† Let us hope that the atrocities of the English allies—so gently noticed by Froissart—are exaggerated; yet certain it is that the old Portuguese chroniclers dwell largely on them:—"Nao se cancao os nossos chronistas de encarecer as atrocidades que estas tropas auxiliares cometeraõ em todos os terrenos de Portugal por onde andaraõ."—*Hist. Geral*, v. 95. "King Fernando," says the *Chronicon Conimbricense*, "had to seize the church plate to satisfy his allies:—Mandou o ditto senhor rey tomar os thesouros das igrejas, convem a saber, frontaes, e calices et magestades, para pagar o soldo aos dittos Ingrezos."—*Florez*, lxiii. 352.

don Juan, bastard brother of Fernando, regent of Portugal. The latter prepared to vindicate his right; when Urban VI., whom he had refused to recognize, raised up against him his old enemy, the duke of Lancaster, who was persuaded by that pope again to invade Castile. The usurper Juan was no less anxious to secure the co-operation of the Plantagenet, whose departure to claim the crown of Castile he began to urge with success. To frustrate the double object of this alliance, the Castilian, in 1384, entered the kingdom, received the homage of his adherents, and proceeded to invest the capital: but his troops were ignobly defeated by those of his rival; even the queen-mother scorned to favor his pretensions; and he was constrained to abandon the siege, and return into his dominions. In 1385, the states of Coimbra proclaimed his rival king; who began vigorously to invest the places which held for him. Fortune attended the arms of the Lusitanian, who successively obtained possession of the chief fortified places, and, in several partial engagements, was hailed as victor. A greater and a decisive action was now at hand. Though he had but 10,000 men, he marched against the Castilian king, who met him with an army of at least 34,000; in which were 2000 French knights. The two armies met near Aljubarota, a village in Portuguese Estremadura; where, by the advice of the English knights who served in his army, the Lusitanian intrenched his followers in a position of some strength. As the troops of the Castilian were wearied by their march, some of his officers, especially the chronicler Pedro Lopez de Ayala, in a council of war assembled to decide on the subject, endeavored to dissuade him from the battle; but the greater number, among whom were the French knights, confiding in their overwhelming numerical superiority, and in their own ardor, inclined him to risk it. The action commenced towards sunset, 1385. on a fine summer evening (August 14.), and was, for a short time, maintained with great spirit on both sides. In the end, the Portuguese obtained a splendid victory, most of the Castilian chivalry, and 10,000 of the infantry, being left dead on the field: the king himself with difficulty effected his escape. The loss was so heavy, that he ordered his subjects to mourn for a whole year; while the victors annually commemorated their triumph. The French allies, who bore the brunt of the battle, suffered severely on this occasion.*

* Lopez de Ayala, *Corónica del Rey Don Juan I.* fol. 164—191. Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* (in *Regno Don Pedro IV.*). Froissart, *Chronicles of England*, &c. by Johnes, vol. vii. Rodericus Santius, *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 21. et 22. Alfonsus à Carthagenæ, *Anacephaleosis*, cap. 90. Franciscus Tarapha, *De Regibus Hispanie*, p. 364. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. v. liv. 20 et 21. This last-named author,—the only native who has written a com-

To profit by this victory, the Portuguese monarch commanded his barons to make an irruption into Castile, while he himself dispatched to the duke of Lancaster a circumstantial account of this signal success. The latter now burned to assert his rights by other means than threats, or by the mere report of his preparations: he actually left England, with a small but choice armament, (about 1500 knights, and as many archers,) accompanied by his wife, the lady Constanza, and his three daughters. In July, 1386, he appeared off the coast of Galicia, and ultimately landed at El Padron: * thence he proceeded to Santiago, where he was solemnly proclaimed king of Castile and Leon. In an interview with the king of Portugal, on the confines of the two states, both entered into a treaty offensive and defensive; and, to cement it the more strongly, agreed that the king should marry Philippa, daughter of the duke. In the mean time, the Castilian was not idle: he had obtained succors from his constant ally the French king, and encouragement from Clement VII., the rival of Urban. In the spring of 1387, the duke and the Portuguese king arrived at Benevento; but their progress was stayed by the plague, which daily made great ravages in their ranks. After the conquest of a few towns and fortresses, the allied army retired into Portugal. The duke himself was seriously indisposed in body; and consequently dispirited. Their retreat was hastened by intelligence of the troubles which raged in England, and which ended in the imprisonment, and eventually the death, of the unfortunate Richard II. But neither abandoned, however circumstances

plete history of his country,—is more swayed by patriotism than by strict justice, in the relation of this memorable battle.

"The count de Foix," says Froissart, "was supernaturally acquainted with the result of this battle the very day it took place." That a familiar spirit attended him, as well as the lord de Corasse, appears to have been unhesitatingly received by this chronicler. See p. 292, &c. of the volume cited.

In this place, Hermilly (note to Ferreras, v. 520.) exhibits strange ignorance, when he censures Mezeray for asserting that German and French troops were in the army of Enrique; and wonders where that author acquired the information. That a French critical historian should not be acquainted with Froissart, who dwells so largely,—far more largely than the Spanish chroniclers,—on the transactions of these times, might surprise us, if ignorance in writers by profession had not long ceased to be surprising.

* Froissart (vol. viii. chap. 5.) says that he landed at Coruña; but, one of his foraging parties being defeated by the French knights, who held the castle of that place, he proceeded by land to Santiago. He is very minute in his relation; but, as it depends on report, it will, in most cases, be safer to follow the Spanish and Portuguese guides. In fact, so many have been the errors we have found in this writer relative to Spanish affairs, that we can recommend no edition or translation of his works hitherto published. It is a pity Johnes, the present translator, was not acquainted with the Castilian and Portuguese chroniclers of the period: they should have been carefully compared with Froissart, and his monstrous blunders corrected in the notes.

might compel them to suspend, their enterprise. The Castilian king knew this, and dreaded the resumption of hostilities at a more favorable period. To avert them, and to obtain the friendship, rather than continue exposed to the enmity, of his powerful enemies, he proposed to the Plantagenet the marriage of his eldest son, Enrique, with Catherine, daughter of the duke, by the princess Constanza, and, consequently, granddaughter of Pedro the Cruel. To this overture the duke lent a favorable ear: towards the close of the year the conditions were definitively arranged at Bayonne. The principal were, that, if Enrique died before the consummation of the marriage, the princess should be given to the next son, don Fernando; that Constanza, mother of the princess, should receive in fief five or six towns in Castile, besides a revenue of 40,000 francs per annum; that the duke should receive 600,000 in gold, by instalments, as an indemnification for the expenses of the war; that both Constanza and her husband should renounce all claim to the Castilian crown; and that hostages should be given him as a security for the due performance of the three first. Thus, if the personal ambition of the Plantagenet remained without gratification, he had at least the satisfaction of seeing one of his daughters queen of Portugal, and the other destined to the throne of Castile. Early in the following year, Catherine, who was in her fourteenth year, was betrothed to Enrique, who was only in his ninth, and who, on this occasion, assumed the title of prince of the Asturias.

1390. The king of Castile did not long survive this reconciliation with the Plantagenet. His death was tragical: on the 9th day of October, 1390, being at Alcala de Henares, to receive some Christian horsemen, who had long lived in Africa, and who were now returned to their native country, he desired to witness their equestrian exercises, in which he knew them to be exceedingly expert. He accordingly issued from the place by the Puerta de Burgos, and for some moments silently watched their masterly feats. As he was himself well mounted, and was no indifferent horseman, he resolved to join them. The ground was unfortunately newly plowed; and he had no sooner spurred his mettled steed into a rapid gallop, than the inequality of the surface, and the softness of the soil, caused the animal to stumble. The king was underneath. Such were the violence of the fall and the weight of the beast, that life was immediately extinct. The archbishop of Toledo, who was the first to reach the fatal spot, concealed the catastrophe until he had secured the succession of the young Enrique.

The reign of Juan I. was one of continued troubles, which, though his abilities were moderate, his firmness prevented

from ruining the state, or endangering his own power. Once, indeed, during the disputed succession to the Lusitanian crown, he seriously intended to resign in favor of his own son Enrique, who, as the son of Beatrix, daughter of Fernando, was the true heir to the Portuguese no less than the Castilian throne. His object was to secure the execution of the treaty made with that prince, and for ever to unite the two crowns. But his nobles, who were evidently no less averse to such an union than their western neighbors, not merely advised but compelled him to preserve his dignity. The last years of his reign were disturbed by the hostilities of those neighbors; but they were too obscure in themselves, and too unimportant in their consequences, to deserve notice.*

ENRIQUE III., surnamed the *Infirm*, being no more than eleven years of age on his accession, no one will be surprised that in so turbulent a kingdom his minority should occasion many dissensions. The first and most difficult to be appeased respected the regency. By the will of the late king it was vested in twelve persons,—in six prelates and barons, and six deputies; one from each of these cities,—Burgos, Leon, Toledo, Seville, Cordova, and Murcia. After much debate, during which it was proposed to burn the will in question, as disagreeable to the ambitious nobles who were excluded, a council of regency, consisting of three princes of the blood, the archbishops of Toledo and Compostella, the grand masters of Santiago and Calatrava, and eight deputies, was formed. Little harmony could long subsist among men perpetually occupied in advancing their own individual views, or in frustrating those of their rivals. Some of the council soon retired dissatisfied from the court. Of these the most reckless and formidable was the archbishop of Toledo; who, under the pretext that, by a law of the Partidas, the regency ought to be conferred on one, or three, or at the most five individuals, evidently aimed at engrossing the chief authority. There was, however, much justice in his complaint that the number of regents was too great for conducting the

* Ayala, *Coronica del Rey Don Juan I.* fol. 191—290. Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. vi. liv. 22. Froissart, *Chronicles of England*, &c. by Johnes, vol. vii. passim. Franciscus Tarapha, *Canonicus Barcionensis*, *De Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 364. Alfonsus à Carthagina, *Episcopus Burgen-sis*, *Anacephaleosis*, cap. 90. Rodericus Santius, *Episcopus Palentinus*, *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 22. Lucius Marineus Siculus, *De Rebus Hispaniæ*, lib. xi. variis locis (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). Hieronymus Blancas, *Rerum Aragonensium Commentarii*, p. 678, &c. (apud eundem, tom. iii.). Zurita, *Anales de Aragon*, tom. ii. lib. 10. Ferreras, *Histoire Générale d'Espagne* (by Hermilly), tom. v. part 8. The events of Portugal will be more clearly recorded in the proper place. In the present chapter they can be noticed only in so far as they are connected with those of Castile.

government with necessary vigor; and many of the barons joined his party, loudly proclaiming that the states of the kingdom ought immediately to be convoked for the purpose of confiding both the wardship of the young prince and the conduct of the administration to fewer and abler hands. At length, in 1392, the cortes of Burgos decreed that there should be twelve governors; but that six only should exercise their functions at the same time: that the duration of their power should continue half a year only; and that at the end of the period they should be relieved by the other six. Still there was no little difficulty in deciding which of the two parties should have the priority in point of time; and when this important affair was settled, other complaints and disturbances arose. The populace rose against the Jews, a class of men, who in Castile, as in Poland, were the receivers of the royal revenues and of the contributions from the towns; and who, on some occasions, abused their authority. To add to these troubles, one of the king's uncles, being forbidden by the council to form a matrimonial alliance with a princess of Portugal, in the height of his discontent broke out into rebellion.

1393 When, in 1393, the young king assumed the reins
to of sovereignty, hopes were naturally entertained that
1399. growing passions would be hushed, and rival factions
reconciled, before the concentrated power of royalty.
But though Enrique showed no want of spirit, or even of energy, he was unable to restore internal peace. The ambition of his uncle Fadrique, duke of Benevento, and the hostility of the Lusitanian king, gave him sufficient occupation, and made the minds of his people strangers to security. Others of his subjects, among whom was another uncle, the count de Gijon, were not slow to profit by the example of the duke of Benevento; nor were these commotions appeased by the force so much as by the liberalities of Enrique. As to the war with Portugal, its only notable success was the surprise of Badajoz by king Juan. Enrique, indeed, had his revenge, by some inroads into the enemy's territory, but neither by force nor negotiation could he recover the bulwark of Estremadura. A truce of ten years, concluded in the last year of the 14th century, restored tranquillity to his harassed frontier.

1400 Enrique was a well-intentioned prince, and beloved
to by his people, whose burdens he sought to alleviate. In
1401, he convoked the cortes at Tordesillas, where he
1407. caused to be enacted many excellent laws, circumscribing the powers and restraining the rapacity of the judges. With equal zeal did he labor to correct an abuse still greater,—the extortions of the revenue officers. The same year he dispatched an embassy to the famous Timur; whose devas-

tating career was known, perhaps dreaded, even in the western extremity of Europe. His ambassadors were well received by the Tatar, who made him suitable presents in return, and even condescended to honor him by an embassy. He died the first day of the year 1407; leaving a son, the infante Juan, by his queen, Catherine, under two years of age.*

JUAN II. being at so tender an age, fears were entertained lest the infante Fernando, brother to the late king, who, in conjunction with the queen-mother, was intrusted with the regency, should seize the crown. But though he had many partisans who urged him to that end, and though in the war which subsisted with the Moors of Granada† even patriotism might color the ambitious attempt, the infante remained firm in his allegiance to his nephew, and alike by his prudence and valor averted the evils which usually befell the state during the minority of its kings. The education of the royal child he confided to its mother; but not until he had caused the imposing ceremony of the coronation to be solemnly performed in the cathedral of Segovia. In the same city the states assembled to confirm the queen and infante in the regency, and to vote the necessary supplies for the prosecution of the war with the Mohammedans. That war he conducted with a vigor which dispirited the enemy. He was no less successful in quelling the turbulence of the nobles, and in thwarting the views of those who labored to embroil him with the queen-mother.

On the death of Martin king of Aragon, in 1410, without issue, don Fernando, as nephew of that king, was one of the candidates for the crown. The claims of each were submitted to nine judges—three from each of the provinces of Aragon, Catalonia, and Valencia,—who, after much disputation, and the removal of many obstacles, proclaimed the infante of Castile the true heir to the vacant throne. In 1412, the new king took possession of his dignity, leaving the administration of Castile in the hands of a council

* Ayala, *Coronica del Rey Enrique III.*, which ends in 1396, but is continued by another hand. Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. vi. liv. 22. cap. 5. *Alfonsus à Carthagena, Anacephalexosis*, cap. 91. *Franciscus Tarapha, De Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 565. *Rodericus Santius, Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 23. et 24. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). *Hieronymus Blancas, Rerum Aragonensium Commentarii*, p. 680. &c. (apud eundem, tom. iii.). *Zurita, Anales de Aragon*, tom. ii. lib. 10. *Ferreras, Histoire Générale d'Espagne* (Hermilly's translation), tom. vi. sièc. 14, &c. p. 1—98. This last named informs us—on what authority does not appear—that Enrique was poisoned by a Jewish physician. Guzman makes no mention of such a circumstance. Favyn, *Histoire de Navarre* (*Régne de Charles le Noble*).

† See History of the Kingdom of Granada, for an account of the wars of the regent with Granada.

of regency, with the queen at their head.* So long as he lived, it seemed as if his influence in the councils of Castile continued unimpaired; the kingdom remained in profound tranquillity. But on his death, in 1416, the queen and her advisers began to be actuated by mutual distrust. The factions which flourished at court soon extended their ramifications into the great towns of the kingdom. In 1418, Catherine herself paid the common debt of nature; and from the time of her feeble son's assuming the sovereignty, may be dated a melancholy series of commotions and disasters.

1419 From the day in which Juan assembled his first
 to cortes (held at Madrid in March 1419), he exhibited
 1421. the moral weakness of his character, and too plainly
 showed that his mind was formed for obedience, not for command. This reign, in consequence, ought not so much to be called his own as that of his favorites; especially of don Alvaro de Luna, a man fatally memorable in the Castilian annals. The first serious disturbance arose from the disappointed love or ambition of don Enrique, infante of Aragon, who claimed the hand of the princess Catalina, the king's sister. Being repulsed by that princess, and disappointed in his hope of aid from the favorites of Juan, he resolved to effect by force what he could not obtain by other means. As at once brother-in-law (Juan had just married his sister) and cousin of the king, he had easy access to the royal apartments whenever he pleased. At daybreak on the morning of July 12. 1420, he hastened to Tordesillas, where the court then was, accompanied by 300 lancers, and by some troops furnished him by his friend and accomplice, Ruy Lopez de Avalos, constable of Castile. Having forced the gates of the palace, he arrested two of Alvaro's creatures, and proceeded to the royal apartment, where he found the king asleep, as well as the favorite, who lay on a mat at the foot of the royal couch. The noise first awoke don Alvaro, who, seeing the formidable array of the infante, contented himself with merely expressing his surprise at conduct so unexpected, and so disrespectful to their common lord. The young queen and the princess Catalina, who occupied the adjoining apartments, were likewise awakened, but their alarm was carefully concealed from the king. The surprise, and for a time the indignation, of Juan himself, were too great to be controlled; but seeing the prince's strength, he at length became calm, and listened with apparent attention to his excuses, who protested that, in so extraordinary a step, he had no other end in view than to rescue

* The extraordinary election of Fernando will be related at length in the history of Aragon.

the king and kingdom from the influence of a few obnoxious advisers. This customary language of treason was too gross to blind even Juan; but he saw he was a prisoner, and he patiently submitted to his fate. The prudence of Alvaro preserved him from arrest; but his and the king's adviser, Fernando de Robles, was consigned to the fortress of Leon. The people of Tordesillas rose to rescue their monarch; but Alvaro, seeing that their blind efforts would only tend to their own destruction, prevailed on them to disperse. Enrique immediately removed from the royal person all whom he knew to be hostile to his views, and replaced them by his own creatures: for the sake of greater security, the king was conducted to the strong alcazar of Avila. Amidst the hurry and confusion of such a scene, the princess Catalina, for whose sake chiefly this atrocious deed had been perpetrated, took refuge in the convent of St. Clair, and refused to leave it, notwithstanding the entreaties and threats of her daring lover. Enrique then ordered one of his officers to drag her by force from her sanctuary: the agent, who appears to have been worthy of such a master, threatened to burn the house to the ground unless she immediately surrendered; the terrified nuns implored her not to bring utter destruction on their heads; so that, in the end, after exacting an oath from the infante, that she should not be constrained to marry him against her will, she left the convent, and was instantly sent to rejoin her brother at Avila.*

The success of this audacious exploit filled some 1421. nobles with indignation, and others with envy: the archbishop of Toledo, and even the infante Juan, brother of Enrique, armed in the cause of their sovereign, and by their letters called on the lords of the kingdom to assemble and rescue him from slavery. But Enrique traversed their design: by convoking in the royal name the states at Avila, he prevented the formation of a dangerous confederacy. Such was the ascendancy of his intrepid character over the helpless Juan, that the latter did not dare to own his subjection; but protested, in the presence of all who were admitted to see him, that he enjoyed perfect freedom. When the states were assembled, he put the finishing hand to his own degradation, by a repe-

* Fernando Perez de Guzman, *Coronica del Serenissimo Principe Don Juan II.* fol. 1—72. *Coronica de Don Alvaro de Luna, Condestable de los Reynos de Castilla y Leon*, p. 1—60. Zurita, *Anales de Aragon*, tom. ii. lib. 4. et tom. iii. lib. 2. Lucius Marineus Siculus, *De Rebus Hispanie* lib. xi. p. 399. Alfonsus à Carthagera, *Anacephalæosis*, cap. 92. Franciscus Tarapha, *De Regibus Hispanie*, p. 566. Rodericus Santius, *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 25—29. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). Hieronymus Blancas, *Commentarii Rerum Aragonensium*, p. 683. (apud eundem. tom. iii.). Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. vi. liv. 23. Ferreras, *Histoire Générale d'Espagne* (by Hermilly), tom. vi. part 9.

tition of the same protestation; and declared in addition, that he approved whatever had been done by his cousin Enrique, whose zeal, however violent, had broken the chains in which he had been held by others. The triumph of the traitor was soon completed by his marriage with the princess Catalina, who, whether from fickleness or fear, no longer showed any disinclination to so ardent a lover. This event, however, which he regarded as the consummation of his hopes, occasioned their frustration; since, amidst the rejoicings and indulgences attending it, he relaxed from the severity with which he had hitherto guarded his royal prisoner. Under the pretext of hunting, the king, accompanied by don Alvaro and other friends, left Talavera early one morning, before Enrique arose, and fled to the castle of Montalban. He was pursued by the constable, and invested in the place. His more loyal subjects, among whom were the archbishop of Toledo and the infante don Juan, hastened to his succor. The siege of the castle was soon raised, and he himself conducted in triumph to Talavera; not to rule as an independent sovereign, but to wear the chains of his old favorites.

1421 Juan had neither vigor enough to punish his enemies,
nor gratitude enough to reward his adherents. While
to Enrique long escaped with impunity, rather through
1425. the impotence than favor of the king, those who had
rescued him from thralldom were wholly overlooked. The
people soon saw that the dominion of one set of favorites was
only replaced by that of another. After remaining in arms
about two years, Enrique at length, confiding in the royal pro-
testations of clemency, laid down his arms, proceeded to court,
and was immediately imprisoned. This fate was far from ade-
quate to his crimes, but it did the royal cause no good: it
proved that Juan trembled only before the powerful, and could
be energetic only with the disarmed. Some of the partisans
of Enrique took refuge in the domains of Aragon: this afforded
the king an opportunity of confiscating their estates, which he
bestowed on his creatures. The dignity of constable was
taken from Ruy Lopez de Avalos, then in Valencia, and con-
ferred on Alvaro de Luna; and the possessions of that baron
were distributed among the hungry parasites of the court. At
length, in 1425, Enrique obtained both his liberty and the
restoration of all his honors and estates, through the threats
rather than the entreaties of his brother the king of Aragon.
He retired to Tarazona.

1426 If Enrique was absent from the kingdom, he had yet
many adherents, who wished for his return. The prodi-
to galities of the king, and the unbounded favors of the
1428. constable, daily added to their number. So great, in-

deed, were those prodigalities, that the deputies to the cortes found it necessary to restrain them: the king was forbidden, during a period of twenty-five years, to grant any new pensions; and most of those which he had granted were revoked. The murmurs, and even partial commotions, which appeared in some of the great towns, where public opinion, and the machinations of Enrique's creatures—such were nearly all who hated the constable—were the most influential, and the entreaties, or rather menaces, of the kings of Aragon and Navarre* for the recall of their brother, added to the distraction of this weak monarch, and to the apprehensions of his courtiers. The league formed against don Alvaro gained accessions every day. As early as 1427, it was bold enough to present a remonstrance to the king, insisting on the dismissal of that baron and others from his councils. Unwilling that concessions should be extorted from him, Juan, by the advice of a prudent ecclesiastic, submitted the subject to certain commissioners expressly appointed for the purpose, who decided that the obnoxious favorite should be exiled from court during eighteen months. In this extraordinary investigation, no crime could be imputed to the constable: if he had provided for his relatives and dependants, he had not abused the power, or shown any lukewarmness in the service, of his master. Jealousy of his immense favor appears to have been the only cause of the persecution urged against him. In conformity with his sentence, he retired to Ayllon, carrying with him the affections of the king; and Enrique returned to court in the hope of resuming his former influence. But the exiled constable, like the prince, had his partisans, who, knowing the royal sentiments, did not despair of procuring his honorable recall. To this end they labored so effectually; such were the troubles they artfully contrived to excite, which they represented as impossible to be allayed by any other than himself; such too were the dissensions of those who now aspired to the king's confidence, and who were more jealous of one another than even of Alvaro,—that in a few short months he was invited to resume his place in the councils of the kingdom. He pretended great reluctance to leave his retirement, and did not comply with the invitation until it had been thrice made.†

* The infante don Juan, brother of Enrique, succeeded in 1424 to the crown of Navarre. See the history of that kingdom.

† Fernando Perez de Guzman, *Coronica del Serenissimo Rey Don Juan II.* fol. 72—115: *Coronica de Don Alvaro de Luna*, p. 3—112. Lucius Marineus Siculus, *De Rebus Hispaniæ*, lib. xi. Alfonsus à Carthagera, *Anacephalæosis*, cap. 92. We here part with this brief writer. Rodericus Santius, *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 20—31. Franciscus Tarapha, *De Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 567. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). Zurita, *Anales de la Corona de Aragon*, tom. iii. lib. 2. Favyn, *Histoire de*

1429. No sooner was the constable re-established in his master's favor, than he was again exposed to the sting of the courtly insects. The discontented Castilians had no difficulty in forming against him a new league, supported as before by the brother kings of Aragon and Navarre. Finding that remonstrances were of no avail, the two sovereigns invaded Castile, protesting that they would see justice done their brother Enrique, and a second time remove the favorite, whom they professed to regard not only as his enemy but their own. Having effected a junction with the infante, they marched against the constable, whom they met near Cogullado. The forces of both parties were preparing for action, when the cardinal de Foix, the pope's legate to Aragon, arrived on the field, and holding a crucifix in his hands, placed himself between the combatants, conjuring and even commanding them to suspend their unnatural warfare. With some difficulty the two armies were persuaded to remain inactive until the following morning; but during the night, so well did the queen of Aragon, mother of Juan, exert herself to preserve peace, that, on receiving promises as to the fulfilment of two or three points of no great importance, they returned to their own dominions. But that monarch, elated by the departure of his enemies, whom he had not ventured to meet in person, refused to ratify the reasonable conditions they had exacted, and loudly expressed his resolution to carry his arms across the frontiers. He accordingly made a destructive sally into the western districts of Aragon. The states of Burgos showed great alacrity to support their monarch, whose preparations were on the most formidable scale. After a few unimportant actions, however, in which no advantage was gained on either side, both agreed on a truce of five years.

1430 During the next few years, Castile, at peace with
 to all her neighbors except Granada, offers nothing to
 1441. strike the attention. Murmurs at the gradually increasing power of the constable, whom the king took every opportunity of enriching, and without whose advice nothing was undertaken, were indeed sufficiently frequent; but no open revolt agitated the kingdom until 1439—an unusual period in such an age and country. From this fact it is impossible not to believe that the man who could maintain himself so long on the very pinnacle of power, in opposition to the efforts of so many princes and barons, must have possessed abilities of no common order. Now, however, a new league was formed against him, headed as usual by Enrique and the

Navarre (*Regne du Rio Jean*). Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. vi. liv. 23. The first of these authorities is worth all the rest; the second is too partial to the memory of the constable.

king of Navarre (Alfonso of Aragon was no longer in a state to dictate to his brother of Castile), the members of which loudly demanded the removal of the obnoxious favorite. To dispel the approaching storm, don Alvaro retired for a time from the court; but the confederates refused to lay down their arms until he should be for ever driven from the royal presence. Though the complaints which they elaborately brought against him were for the most part invented or exaggerated, it is evident enough that during this second period of favor he had abused his influence over the royal mind, and exhibited as much eagerness to enrich—no matter by what means—his creatures and instruments, as vindictiveness against all who ventured to thwart his will. To appease his barons, the king convoked his cortes at Valladolid: such a step was become necessary, for the leaguers had seized on some of his chief cities, and were preparing to proceed still further. The first act of the assembly was to recommend that all parties should disarm—the king as well as the infante, the constable as well as the king of Navarre. But this recommendation led to no result; both parties continued exasperated as before. That of the king was weakened by the desertion of his only son, prince Enrique, who espoused the cause of the confederates. The queen followed the example of her son: in short, the aspect of affairs was so menacing, that don Alvaro began to turn his eyes towards Portugal in search of an asylum. Through the persuasion of the king, however, who assured him that every thing should be arranged to his wish, he consented to await the result.*

The horrors of internal strife were now felt in all their force: city after city was invested and taken by the confederate rebels, who showed little mercy to the partisans of the king and constable. In vain did Juan whisper peace; in vain did he prepare to abide by the decision of his states, which he might summon for the purpose: as he did not at once and for ever banish don Alvaro from his presence, his entreaties and remonstrances were equally disregarded. At length, finding that he was unable to contend with his queen, his son, and his barons, he consented, in a conference with the chiefs of the insurgents, not only to dismiss from court all the creatures of the constable, but to forbid the obnoxious favorite his presence during six years. The indiscre-

* Guzman, *Coronica del Serenissimo Principe Don Juan II.* 115—215. *Coronica de Don Alvaro de Luna*, 112—172. Hieronymus Blancas, *Rerum Aragonensium Commentarii*, p. 698, &c. (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. iii.). Franciscus Tarapha, *De Regibus Hispanie*, p. 567. Rodericus Santius, *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 31. &c. (ambo apud eundem, tom. i.). Zurita, *Anales de la Corona de Aragon*, tom. iii. lib. 12. et 13. Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. vii. liv. 26. et 27. Ferreras, *Histoire Générale d'Espagne* (by Hermilly), tom. vi. part 9.

tion, however, of don Alvaro, who, from his retreat at San Martin, unsuccessfully endeavored to sow dissension among the confederates, made them resolve on his utter destruction. The still greater imprudence of the king, who, in 1443, held over the baptismal font a child of the constable's, confirmed them in their purpose. Their first object, which they easily effected, was to keep their sovereign a kind of prisoner in his own palace. Though their subsequent efforts were somewhat paralyzed by the defection of prince Enrique, who even called on all good men to aid him in rescuing his father from a slavish dependence on them, they persevered not the less in their design.

1444. They took the field against both the prince and the father, who now contrived to escape, and reach the camp of the former. But on this occasion fortune declared for the side of justice; the confederates were routed and dispersed in several successive actions, and their strong places recovered by the royal forces. Their estates were seized by the king, and they themselves forced to seek refuge in Aragon or Navarre. Subsequently, both the king of Navarre and his brother, the reckless Enrique, collected troops; and invaded, the one Castile, the other Murcia; but without any other result than that of harassing the innocent peasantry, or wreaking vengeance on their personal enemies. Finally, the victory of Olmedo, gained by Juan in person over the two brothers; the acquisition of a considerable number of prisoners; and the death of Enrique, through a wound received in that battle; appeared to consolidate both the power of the king and the influence of the favorite.

1445 But royal attachments are seldom permanent, be-
cause they are seldom founded on merit; and because
to the minds of men, especially those of kings, are gene-
rally incapable of any lasting impression. 1453. Though the
favor of Juan II. had been protracted far beyond the limits of
ordinary duration, it was not to prove an exception to the usual
course of human experience. Soon after the battle of Olmedo,
the partiality of the monarch began to be weakened. The
first known subject of dissatisfaction arose from the negotiations
for a new marriage (the king had been some time a widower:)
Juan wished for a daughter of Charles VII. of France; the
constable forced on him a princess of Portugal. Such, how-
ever, was his habitual submission to the will of the favorite,
that he concealed his discontent, and shortly afterwards even
prevailed on the knights of Santiago to elect the constable for
their grand master.* In the frequent misunderstandings which
happened between him and his son, don Alvaro still continued
to be his umpire: the interests of the unnatural prince were

* The dignity had been held by Alfonso of Aragon, whom the king caused to be deposed.

managed by don Juan Pacheco, whose influence over the heir apparent equalled, and, as we shall hereafter perceive, was destined to prove as disastrous, as that of the constable over the king. Alvaro, too, continued to command the royal troops in the frequent hostilities with the king of Navarre, who sometimes invested the frontier towns of Castile in person, and sometimes stimulated the discontented nobles to revolt within their respective domains or jurisdictions. In short, besides the habitual sway which he exercised over the royal mind, he was too powerful, both from his alliances and the number of his armed dependants, to be bearded even by a king. Years accordingly elapsed before Juan could put into execution his long meditated design of destroying his constable. His attention, indeed, was long distracted by the irruptions into his territories of the Aragonese and Navarrese, in conjunction with the Castilian exiles; and by the partial revolts which from time to time agitated his kingdom. (That of Toledo, for instance, occasioned by an exaction, under the name of a loan, of a million maravedis, was not suppressed without much difficulty. It was not until the year 1453, that he seriously resolved to rid himself of his formidable minister; and the caution with which he proceeded in that resolution proves at once the cowardice and meanness of his character. Instead of openly arresting the constable, he secretly implored the count de Plasencia to seize, or even to assassinate, don Alvaro. But the latter, who had spies everywhere, was soon acquainted with much of what had been decided against him. A prudent man would have for ever left the court, and, with a number of armed followers sufficient to protect him from his enemies, would have retired to some one of his numerous fortresses; but prudence was a virtue to which the constable was a stranger: he resolved to remain, and set at defiance both king and nobles.

To rashness, and an insolent contempt of the royal power and authority, don Alvaro soon added the crime of murder. Knowing that Alfonso de Vivero, one of his creatures, was become his secret enemy, he planned the destruction of that false confidant. One day, he held in his own house a council, to which Alfonso was summoned. On the appearance of the latter, he was shown the correspondence which he had held with the king relative to the constable's arrest, and which Alvaro had intercepted. The confusion of the traitor would have been evidence enough of his guilt, without the incontestable documents then produced. On a signal from the constable, he was dragged to the top of the tower, precipitated headlong, and dashed to pieces on the ground below.* The

* Another account says that Alfonso was thrown from a window; a third, that he was killed by a blow on the head with a mace. So much do

creatures of Alvaro suddenly raised a note of lamentation, as if the fall had been purely accidental; but the king was soon acquainted with the truth, and the more confirmed in his purpose of vengeance.

1453. Don Alvaro was at Burgos, when the order for his arrest was given by the king to the son of the count de Plasencia, to take him dead or alive. During the night, troops were secretly placed in various parts of the city, and at the entrance of the fortress, into which some men-at-arms were silently introduced. The royal order was to invest the house in which the constable resided, and thereby compel him to surrender. Accordingly, the young Zuñiga, with 200 men-at-arms, and twenty horsemen, surrounded the house, exclaiming, "*Castilla! Castilla! libertad para el Rey!*" The constable showed his head from a window; but an arrow being shot at him, he withdrew it, and his men began to fire on the royal troops. The assault was repelled; but he himself was at length persuaded to surrender, on receiving an assurance in writing, under the king's own hand, that his life, liberty, and even possessions, should be spared. No sooner, however, was he secured, than his gold and jewels were seized by the faithless monarch, and orders given to try—in other words, to condemn him. Twelve lawyers and several barons, being assembled for this purpose, unanimously passed on him the last sentence, and the confiscation of all his possessions. From Burgos he was conducted to Valladolid, where the execution was appointed to take place. He prepared for death with firmness, and with apparent contrition for his past misdeeds. During the night preceding the execution, the king's mind was far from tranquil. He remembered the real services of the constable through so many years, the affection he had once borne him, and the promise he had made of sparing his life. The remembrance was so troublesome that he once or twice delivered a sealed paper to the chamberlain on duty, which he wished to be taken to Zuñiga—doubtless to stay the execution. Hearing of his agitation, the queen, whose conduct throughout was exceedingly vindictive, hastened to him, and succeeded in suspending rather than removing his scruples. As the fatal hour approached, don Alvaro, mounted on a mule, and attended by two monks, left his house for the scaffold. On the way, the public herald, according to custom, vociferated his crimes and punishment. "I deserve all this," said he, "and more, for my sins!" When near the scaffold, he called a page of the prince, and said to him, "Page, tell my lord the prince to reward his servants better than the king, my sovereign, now rewards me!" He ascended

even contemporaries differ in their relations of a fact which many might have witnessed, and respecting which all might have obtained exact information.

with a firm step, knelt for a few moments before a crucifix, bared his neck with his own hands, and quietly laid his head on the block, when the executioner plunged the knife into his throat, and afterwards separated the head from the body, amidst the tears of the surrounding multitude.

Thus fell the great constable of Castile, the victim, chiefly of his own immeasurable ambition, and in no mean degree of courtier jealousy and of royal faithlessness. If his crimes were many, they were characteristic rather of the age than of the man: he was certainly no more criminal than the great body of the Castilian barons, who despised alike justice and reason when violence could secure their ends. To him the queen was indebted for her crown; yet she persecuted him with unrelenting hatred. The numbers whom he had enriched forsook him as his favor declined: three only of his army of dependants remained faithful to the last. And as to his trial, the most eminent legal authorities of Spain have satisfactorily proved, that in his case both the spirit and forms of justice were disregarded.*

Juan II. did not long survive the constable: he died in 1454. He was one of the weakest and most despicable princes that ever swayed the sceptre of any country. Besides two sons, he left issue the infanta Isabel, so famous in the annals of Spain.†

The reign of ENRIQUE IV., surnamed *the Impotent*, 1454. was even more disastrous than that of his father. That this surname was not undeserved, we have the testimony of his own wife, Blanche of Navarre, whom he led to the altar in 1440, and who, after a union of thirteen years, could complain that the *debitum conjugale* remained unpaid. On this ground, in 1453, the marriage was annulled, and the unfortunate princess returned to her family. After his accession, however, he solicited and obtained the hand of a Portuguese infanta.

From the rebellious conduct of this prince towards his own father, it could scarcely be expected that he would be allowed to sway the sceptre in peace. Besides the disputes which he had with the crowns of Na-
1445
to
1450.

* Of this opinion are the eminent legalists, Salazar de Mendoza (Cronica del Gran Cardenal, Don Pedro Gonzalez de Mendoza, liv. i. cap. 19.), Gonzales de Avila (Teatro de Salamanca, lib. iii. cap. 15.), and Montalvo (las Sieta Partidas, lib. i. tit. 7. part 1.), and many others.

† Guzman, Cronica del Serenissimo Principe Don Juan II. fol. 215. to the end. Cronica de Don Alvaro de Luna, from the place last cited to the end. Rodericus Santius, Historia Hispanica, lib. iv. cap. 32—34. Lucius Marineus Siculus, De Rebus Hispaniæ, lib. xii. Franciscus Tarapha, De Regibus Hispanica, p. 566. (apud Schottum, Hispania Illustrata, tom. 1.). Ælius Antonius Nebrissensis, Decades Rerum Hispanarum, lib. i. cap. 1. (apud eundem in eodemque tomo). Alfonso de Palencia, Decados, Diego de Valera; and Alfonso d'Espina (as quoted by Ferreras, part ix.). Zurita, Anales de Aragón, tom. iii. lib. 15. Lemos, Historia Geral de Portugal, tom. vii. liv. 27. et 28.

varre and Aragon, he was perpetually subjected to the insults no less than the defiance of his turbulent nobles, and to the partial revolts of the people whom the exactions of his revenue officers never failed to exasperate. In 1457 a league was formed against him, just as it had been against the late king, and composed of the most influential barons and ecclesiastics: among these was Enrique's favorite Pacheco, for whom he had obtained the marquisate of Villena, and whom he had laden with honors and wealth. Their complaints were, that the business of administration was neglected; that the king kept aloof from the hereditary advisers of his crown, and associated with individuals of low birth, on whom he lavished his resources, to the great detriment of the state. Whatever might be his other faults, he was naturally mild, and disposed to cherish his people: to their remonstrance he replied, that he would convoke his cortes, and do whatever they advised him. They accordingly disbanded. But, if he was well-intentioned, he had not energy enough to persevere in any given line of conduct: he soon abandoned himself to new favorites.

1458. In 1458 his subjects were not a little surprised to perceive a *lady*, Doña Guiomar de Castro, one of the queen's attendants, among the number.* The notorious imputation cast on his virility, might probably have driven him to such a step; possibly, too, as he and his creatures contended, time had invigorated him. However this be, certain it is that the queen was jealous of the new mistress, though that jealousy might arise as much from seeing another the exclusive channel of royal favors, as from a more delicate cause. On one occasion she exhibited the feeling in a manner little decorous. The king had proclaimed a bull-fight,—no doubt in honor of doña Guiomar,—in the plaza before the palace of Madrid: the queen not only refused to appear at the windows, but strictly enjoined her women to remain in the back apartments. The favorite disregarded the command: magnificently attired, she overlooked, from a high balcony, the feats of the day. Enraged at this contempt of her orders, and pervaded by the whole fiend of jealousy, Juana remained at the foot of the staircase until the minion descended, and with her royal hands inflicted some severe blows on the head of the offender, whom at the same time she dragged by the hair along the ground, to the no small scandal of the household. Enrique hastened to the scene, seized his consort by the arm and threw her from him: whether from the violence of the repulse, or from mortification, the queen fainted away. To prevent the repetition of such scenes,

* This was not Enrique's only mistress: he had also doña Catalina de Sandoval, whom, for an infidelity, he afterwards shut up in the convent of San Pedro de las Dueñas. Her accomplice lost his head,—an almost solitary instance of cruelty in this monarch.

the minion was removed from the palace, and splendidly established at a village in the vicinity of Madrid.

In the mean time, the confederates seeing the ill success of their former remonstrance, again proceeded to strengthen their league: they presented a second, drawn up in more decided terms than the preceding; and, besides, insisted that the king should pay more regard to the education of the infantes, Alfonso and Isabel, and cause the former to be recognized as his heir by the states of the kingdom. As his answer was evasive, they again placed the king of Aragon and Navarre* at their head, and labored by every means to obstruct the course of his government. Hostilities between him and that monarch were the consequence; but they led to nothing, especially as from time to time he found means to gain over several of the discontented lords. His satisfaction was increased by the pregnancy of his queen; who, early in 1462, was delivered of a daughter, the infanta Juana. Though popular report did not hesitate to assign the child to the familiarity of the mother with Don Beltran de la Cueva, count of Ledesma, one of Enrique's favorites, and even applied to that issue the significant epithet of *Beltraneja*, the latter was the no less eager in securing the recognition of the princess as heiress to his dominions.†

In 1464, after some partially unsuccessful inroads into Catalonia, the inhabitants of which had placed themselves under his protection, and even acknowledged him as their sovereign; Enrique made peace with the Aragonese, and thereby forsook the Catalans. But if one enemy was thus appeased, a more formidable one remained in his own barons and courtiers, who were generally in arms against him, and who constantly refused even to confer with him in person, until he had given hostages for their safety. Their avowed object was still to procure the recognition of the infant Alfonso, to the exclusion of the Beltraneja, whom nobody regarded as his. At length, the marquis of Villena, the very soul of the league, being disappointed in his expectation of the grand mastership of Santiago, which was conferred on the count of Ledesma, formed no less a project than that of arresting both king and queen, of proclaiming Alfonso, and, in concert with his

* Juan of Navarre had also succeeded to the crown of Aragon.

† Diego Henriquez del Castillo, Francisco de la Cruz, and Alfonso de Palencia (in MS., as quoted by Ferreras, tom. vii. passim). Ælius Antonius Nebrissensis, Decades, dec. i. lib. 1. cap. 2. Rodericus Santius, Historia Hispanica, lib. iv. cap. 36. Lucius Marineus Siculus, De Rebus Hispanie, lib. xiii. &c. Franciscus Tarapha, De Regibus Hispanie (omnes apud Schottum, Hispania Illustrata, tom. i.). Blancas, Rerum Aragonensium Commentarii, p. 705. (apud eundem, tom. iii.). Zurita, Anales de la Corona de Aragon, tom. iv. lib. 16. et 17. Ferreras, Histoire Générale d'Espagne (by Hermilly), vii. partie 10.

confederates, of reigning under the name and authority of that young prince. The convent of San Pedro de las Dueñas, where an interview was to take place between the king and the confederates, was to witness the execution of this audacious plot: but, being seasonably warned by four faithful servants, he avoided the snare. Such, however, was his anxiety for the restoration of internal peace, that he soon afterwards consented to a similar interview,—each party to be attended by no more than fifty horsemen. In that interview he astonished the leaguers by the facility with which he acceded to their demands. He agreed that his brother Alfonso should be declared his heir; that don Beltran should resign the grand-mastership of Santiago in favor of that infante, who should be consigned to the guardianship of the marquis of Villena. Early in the following year, (1465,) these conditions were punctually performed: Beltran resigned the dignity, with which Alfonso was immediately invested; and that infante, on engaging to marry the Beltraneja, was, at the same time, proclaimed prince of the Asturias, and successor to the throne. Commissioners were also appointed for the arrangement of other differences. But the unexampled concessions were insufficient to satisfy the latter, whose resolution of dethroning their sovereign, however its execution might have been thwarted by contingencies, still subsisted in all its vigor. Enrique summoned them to lay down their arms, and to surrender his brother, and went to invest Arevalo, one of their fortresses: that siege, however, he soon raised on hearing that Valladolid had declared for Alfonso, whom the rebels were conducting to Avila, to be there proclaimed king of Leon and Castile.

1465. The scene which now disgraced Avila was one of unparalleled effrontery. In the midst of the plain, near the walls of the city, a vast theatre was constructed: in the centre rose a throne, on which was placed an effigy of Enrique, with a crown on the head, a sceptre in the hand, and other ensigns of royal dignity. A herald ascended the platform, and read, in a loud voice, the various charges that had long been urged against the administration of the king,—his neglect of justice; his incapacity; the outrages which he had committed against his kingdom and nobles: hence, that, in conformity with reason and justice, no less than the fundamental laws of the realm, the said Enrique had been pronounced by the most eminent civilians to be unfit any longer to wear the crown, and that his deposition was imperiously demanded by the interests of the nation. This decision was justified by an allusion to other kingdoms, which, in various periods of history, had been compelled to depose their rulers. No sooner was this strange homily finished than the archbishop

of Toledo,* with the marquis of Villena, the count of Plasencia, the grand master of Alcantara, and other barons, ascended the platform, and approached the statue. The first took off the royal crown; the second snatched away the sceptre; the third, the sword; a fourth stripped off the kingly robe; a fifth and sixth, the other emblems of royalty; all six then simultaneously kicked the statue from the chair, and precipitated it to the ground, loading it with curses and the most insulting terms of reproach. Alfonso was next brought on the stage,—was elevated on the shoulders of the nobles, who exclaimed, "*Castilla! Castilla! para el rey don Alfonso!*" The flourish of trumpets, the beating of drums, and the homage solemnly rendered to the new king, completed the scene.

Enrique was naturally anxious to punish the rebels, but their attitude was too formidable for him. They continued under arms, besieging fortress after fortress, and wreaking vengeance alike on their personal and political enemies. During these troubles there was a total relaxation of the laws: numerous bands of robbers paraded the highways, and not unfrequently pillaged the towns of the kingdom; until the inhabitants formed themselves into voluntary confederations for the protection of their persons and properties. In their turn, the latter, too, became a curse to their country. No sooner had they attained the object of their association, than, conscious of their own strength, and smarting under the oppression they had so long endured from their feudal lords, they commenced, in many places, an open war against that privileged class. The lords, in self-defence, confederated in a similar manner; and, as might be expected, were victorious wherever their opponents ventured to meet them. Thus continued the face of affairs until 1467, when Enrique resolved to risk a battle with the rebels. He met them near Olmedo, where, after a fierce but indecisive struggle, both armies left the field, each boasting of the victory. While each was collecting reinforcements to try the event of another action, arrived a papal legate, who endeavored to reduce the rebels to reason, and who was so imprudent as to threaten them with the thunders of the church unless they laid down their arms and submitted their complaints to arbitration. Such thunders passed harmless over their heads: they could argue as well as he: and, in one respect at least, with far greater justice. They admitted the pope's power in matters purely spiritual; but contended that he had not the slightest in such as were temporal: the present they clearly showed to be a case where neither faith nor discipline was concerned;

* This prelate's name deserves to be remembered: it was Alfonso Carillo, the most turbulent man of a turbulent age.

and one in which both the legate and his master were two intermeddlers, whose presumption ought to be punished. Three hundred tongues at once hooted him from the camp of the confederates: to avoid something worse, he hastily mounted his mule, and fled. This event, however, did not prevent the king from meeting the leaders at Segovia, where a suspension of arms was agreed on. The following year, his rival, the infante Alfonso, died,—an event highly favorable to the king. The rebels, indeed, proposed to raise the infanta Isabel, his sister, to the throne, and thereby perpetuate their own impunity; but that princess, who had principles and an understanding far above her years, refused to accept the criminal dignity, or to become the tool of a few factious rebels. Though she was proclaimed at Seville, and other parts of Andalusia, the treason was not her's, but her pretended partisans'. Some of the discontented lords now returned to their duty; finally, peace was made between the king and the rest: Isabel and Enrique met with every appearance of good-will; and that princess was recognized, both by him and the great body of the barons and deputies, as the undoubted heiress of the two crowns. The queen, indeed, protested against this arrangement in favor of her daughter: but her complaints passed unheeded.*

1469.* In the same year was laid the foundation of an union which was to prove of such unbounded value to Spain: Juan II. of Aragon solicited the hand of Isabel of Castile, for his son and heir don Fernando, king of Sicily. The overture was formally received by the princess; but obstacles of so formidable a nature intervened, that, for some time, there was little hope of a successful issue to the negotiations. Neither the king nor the queen wished to see the cause of Isabel supported by so powerful a neighbor as the future monarch of Aragon would necessarily be. Besides, several barons, who had followed the fortunes of Enrique, and procured great estates at the expense of the infanta's adherents, naturally dreaded her accession in any case, especially if there should be a junction of her power with that of Aragon. Such, however, was the eagerness of Juan to conclude the match; such the sums he distributed among the Castilian nobles; and so

* Hernando del Pulgar, *Cronica de los Señores Reyes Catolicos*, part i. Rodericus Santius, *Historia Hispanica*, lib. iv. cap. 36—40. This writer's work, the latter part of which is chiefly an encomium on the character of Enrique, ends in 1469: he is a very useful guide. Lucius Marineus Siculus, *De Rebus Hispaniæ*, lib. xiii.—xviii. Franciscus Tarapha, *De Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 567. Ælius Antonius Nebrissensis, *Decades*, dec. 1. lib. i. cap. 2—6. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). Blancas, *Rerum Aragonensium Commentarii*, p. 703, &c. (apud eundem, tom. iii.). Zurita, *Anales de Aragon* (in regno Juan II.). Mariana, *De Rebus Hispanicis* (apud Schottum, tom. iv.); with many others.

powerful the interference of the archbishop of Toledo in the cause, that her adherents decided on bringing the affair as soon as possible to a conclusion. The whole negotiation was secretly conducted; the rather as the princess was sought both by the duke de Berri, brother to the French king, and by the monarch of Portugal; whose agents were sure to oppose every obstacle in their power to the union with Aragon. For a time she was a prisoner in Madrigal, where it was evidently intended to detain her until she gave her consent to either the Portuguese or the Frenchman. The former was considered too old to have issue, the latter was too far removed to be dreaded. She contrived to acquaint her friends with her unexpected position. The primate immediately collected 300 lances, and marched to her relief: the admiral of Castile and the bishop of Curia did the same: she was released, and triumphantly escorted to Valladolid. Fernando was invited to hasten from Aragon with all possible expedition, while Enrique was absent in Andalusia, and receive his bride. As he was likely to be intercepted on his reaching the Castilian territory, he assumed a suitable disguise, and with three attendants only, eluded the design of his enemies. On the 25th of October, 1469, the royal pair received the nuptial benediction in the cathedral of Valladolid.

No sooner was Enrique acquainted with this precipitate marriage, than he resolved to leave no measure ¹⁴⁶⁹ untried for securing the crown to the Beltraneja. To ^{to} the deputations of his sister and brother-in-law, who ^{1474.} professed the utmost fidelity towards his person, and obedience to his commands; and who entreated him to forgive a step rendered necessary by circumstances, he either returned no answers at all, or such as were studiously evasive. The profusion with which he lavished lands, lordships, and other honors, on the more powerful barons, proved how anxious he was to effect his object. But his attention was long distracted, and his efforts rendered abortive, by the troubles which lacerated his kingdom. There was no longer a government: one baron made war on another, and one class of the community on another, with perfect impunity, and with perfect contempt of their sovereign's authority. It was not until 1470 that he had either leisure or courage to cause his reputed daughter to be proclaimed heiress to his dominions. At the same time he caused letters to be addressed to the functionaries, civil, military, and ecclesiastical, of his kingdom, commanding them to regard the said infanta Juana as their future sovereign. On the other hand, the princess Isabel was not backward in publishing her claims; the validity of which had been recognized by Enrique himself. Hence the nation was divided into two

parties, which pursued each other with unrelenting animosity. In some towns the streets were deluged with blood by their contentions; but it may be doubted whether private passion had not quite as much influence in these disorders as attachment to either party. On the whole, however, the partisans of Isabel increased, while Enrique was unable to find his pretended daughter a husband and protector in any of the neighboring royal families. To suspend, at least, the strife which had so long raged between the parties, he was persuaded, in 1473, to hold an interview with his sister; and the pleasure which he evidently took in seeing her, made her adherents hope that he would again sanction her rights. The hope was strengthened, when, at Segovia, early in the following year, he showed considerable attention to Fernando himself. But this king was too fickle in disposition and too mutable in character, to persevere long in any given line of conduct: he again sought for an opportunity of entrapping and imprisoning the infanta and her husband: but his purpose was divined and eluded.

This weak monarch,—weak even to helplessness,—died near the close of 1474; by his last will he declared the young Juana his successor, and charged four of his most considerable barons with its execution. The desire of wiping away the stain on his manhood did not forsake him even on the verge of the grave.*

FERNANDO V. and ISABEL.—On the death of Juan, 1474. Fernando was at Saragossa; but his consort, being at Segovia, summoned that city to acknowledge her, and was instantly obeyed: by the nobles and prelates present, both were solemnly proclaimed joint sovereigns of Castile and Leon. On his return from Aragon, there was much dispute as to the power he was to exercise in the administration. While one party contended that the undivided executive ought to depend on the queen, as *domina et hæres* of the monarchy, another maintained that he alone should govern; since, in default of male issue by the deceased king, the crown devolved of right to him as the next heir. But the salic law had never been in force in this kingdom, however it might be recognized in some

* Hernando del Pulgar, *Cronica de los Señores Reyes Catolicos, Don Fernando y Doña Isabel*, part i. p. 1—9. Diego del Castilla, *Francisco de la Cruz and Diego de Palencia* (as quoted by Ferreras, tom. vii. passim). *Ælius Antonius Nebrissensis*, dec. 1. lib. 1. cap. 2—10. et lib. ii. cap. 1—10. *Franciscus Tarapha, De Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 567. *Lucius Marineus Siculus*, lib. xviii. *Gomecius de Rebus Gestis Francisci Ximenis*, lib. i. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). *Blancas, Rerum Aragonensium Commentarii*, p. 74. (apud eundem, tom. iii.). *Mariana, De Rebus Hispaniæ* (apud eundem, tom. iv.). *Zurita, Anales de Aragon*, tom. iv. (in regno Juan II.). *Lemos, Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. vii. liv. 28. *Ferreras, Histoire Générale d'Espagne* (by Hermilly), tom. vii. passim, cum aliis.

neighboring states. After frequent and acrimonious consultations, it was agreed that the king and queen should reign conjointly, and that, in all public acts, his name should precede hers; but, to save her rights, or rather to satisfy Castilian jealousy, it was no less stipulated, that without her express sanction he should not have power to alienate any portion of the royal revenues or domains, nor to nominate the governors of towns or fortresses. These restrictions were far from pleasing to Fernando, who was immoderately fond of power; and who, at first, even threatened to return into his hereditary kingdom. His indignation was disarmed by the prudence of the queen, who, by promising submission to his will, averted so fatal a misfortune.

But if the majority of the people were in favor of the new reign, there were yet many barons, and those of considerable influence, who espoused the interests of Juana; not so much from attachment to that princess, whose birth they, in common with the rest of the nation, considered dubious,* as from a view to their own individual advantage. Under the reign of a sovereign so feeble as Juana, they were likely to enjoy much greater impunity than under one so able and vigorous as Isabel, aided by the arm and counsels of her cautious, calculating, ambitious, and jealous husband. The marquis of Villena, with other barons of the same party, resolved to marry the young princess to Alfonso V. of Portugal, assisted by whose arms they hoped to make head against the reigning pair. They were soon joined by the primate, who, conceiving that he was not treated with sufficient distinction at court, threw the weight of his influence into the scale of rebellion. The sovereigns at once perceived the troubles which would agitate the realm, perhaps for years; and, with more humanity than policy, they endeavored to gain over the

* "Upon his demise (Enrique's), rejecting Joanna, whom Henry had uniformly, and even on his death-bed, owned to be his lawful daughter, and whom an assembly of the states had acknowledged to be the heir of the kingdom, they (the Castilians,) obliged her to retire into Portugal, and placed Isabella on the throne of Castile."—*Robertson's Charles the Fifth*, ii. 4. Here are some inaccuracies. 1. That Enrique should consider Juana his own daughter will surprise nobody; but this does not prove that she really was: the historian, in concealing the almost universal impression as to her illegitimacy, does not state the case with sufficient candor. 2. The recognition of Juana by an assembly of the states is as little to the purpose: by a similar assembly had Isabel been declared successor. 3. The Castilians, as we shall soon perceive, did not force Juana to retire into Portugal: on the contrary, she might have remained in Castile: besides, the Castilians had nothing to do with her destiny, which was regulated entirely by the kings of Castile and Portugal. Neither is it correct to say that Enrique was a "vicious prince:" weak he was—childishly so—but not vicious. His early disobedience to his father was the error of youth, and more imputable to the turbulent spirits around him than to himself. "Fuit natura clementior," says one who knew him well, "quam regnorum gubernatores decet."—*Ad. Ant. Nobris*.

marquis. His demands, however, were so unblushingly exorbitant, that they considered it better to endure the evils of war than submit to the selfish pretensions of a rebellious subject. Equally fruitless was the application to the archbishop of Toledo, who would listen to no terms; and who insolently threatened to make the queen resume the distaff. Alfonso readily embraced the proposals of the disaffected: he collected troops, and at the same time, as the uncle of Juana, applied to the pope for a dispensation to celebrate the marriage.

1475 However important the stake for which the two parties now began to contend, the details of that contention are too obscure in themselves, and were too indecisive, to merit minute attention. Though the Portuguese obtained some partial successes, among others the strong fortress of Zamora, the war was decidedly in favor of the Castilian sovereigns: in the very first campaign the marquis of Villena had the mortification to see his hereditary domains in possession of the royal forces; while many of the towns and forts, which had at first declared for Juana, returned to their duty. In 1476 the Portuguese king was compelled to retreat from Zamora, which was invested by Fernando: near Toro he was overtaken by his active enemy, and a battle ensued, in which victory declared for the latter: * it was immediately followed by the surrender of the fortress. About the same time, Madrid, which had held for Juana, capitulated to the duke del Infantado: Ucles followed the example. Both the marquis and the primate were now tired of their ally and their cause; but Alfonso himself long refused all proposals of accommodation. Duped by Charles VIII. of France, who was then at war with Fernando's father, and who promised to aid him; mortified at the revocation of the papal dispensation, on the ground of its having been obtained by false pretences; deserted by his Castilian adherents, who began to negotiate for pardon with their sovereign; his cause condemned by the church, and his kingdom tired of the contest, he himself, at length, listened to pacific proposals. Negotiations were accordingly opened; and, in September, 1479, satisfactorily concluded at Alcacebas. The principal conditions were, that Alfonso should renounce the title of king of Castile; that he should neither marry, nor in any way favor the pretensions of doña Juana; that "this pretended daughter of the late king, don Enrique," should be allowed six months to decide whether she would wait until the infante Juan (only child of Fernando

* In this battle it was somewhat singular to see two eminent ecclesiastical dignitaries, the cardinal de Mendoza and the archbishop of Toledo, fighting on opposite sides. There was something not exactly apostolic in the former's hastening along the Castilian ranks, with a crucifix borne before him, shouting, "Knaves, fight away! have ye not a cardinal with you?"

and Isabel, then only a year old,) arrived at a marriageable age, or take the veil; that the Portuguese should restore the few places they still held in Estremadura. It was added, that if, on arriving at a proper age, the infante should be averse to the match, he had only to pay 100,000 pistoles to be at liberty to marry whom he pleased. The unfortunate lady, seeing that she was sacrificed to the interests of the two kings, professed in the convent of St. Clair at Coimbra.

The very year in which peace was thus happily restored between Castile and Portugal, Fernando, by the death of his father, Juan II., was called to the throne of Aragon. Having received the homage, and confirmed the privileges of his Aragonese subjects at Saragossa, of the Catalonians at Barcelona, and of the Valencians in the capital of that province, he returned into Castile.*

The reign of Fernando and Isabel was distinguished for many uncommon things. First, they were noted for a rigid administration of justice: neither for money nor favor would they spare the guilty. This severity was the more necessary, as, from the license of the preceding reigns, the laws had fallen into neglect, or been displaced by brute force. The local judges were too much afraid of the armed nobles to punish excesses; nor durst the unprotected complain of their wrongs. To see that these magistrates performed their duties with integrity and independence, extraordinary judges or *corregidores* were dispatched into every part, to survey their conduct, as well as to control their sentences; but as this was not sufficient to eradicate an evil of so long duration, through the advice of Alfonso de Quintanilla, grand-treasurer to the confederation which existed in the cities and towns,—and which took cognizance of all violent offences against the laws,—new powers, and a totally new constitution, were added. At the head of this institution, which became formidable alike to robber and rebel, was the king's natural brother, the duke of Villa-Hermosa. The members who constituted this Santa Hermandad, or Holy Brotherhood, were at first 2000 horsemen, and a corresponding number of officers on foot: they had their laws and judges; and were, therefore, intrusted with more extensive

* *Ælius Antonius Nebrissensis*, *Decades*, dec. i. lib. 1—7. *Lucius Marinus Siculus*, *De Rebus Hispaniæ*, lib. xviii. et xix. *Franciscus Tarapha*, *de Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 568. *omnes apud Schottum*, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). *Blancas*, *Rerum Aragonensium Commentarii* (apud eundem, tom. iii.). *Mariana*, *de Rebus Hispanicis*, lib. xxiv. (apud eundem, tom. iv.). *Hernando del Pulgar*, *Cronica de los Señores Reyes Catolicos*, parte segunda, cap. 1—92. *Salazar de Mendoza*, *Cronica del Gran Cardenal de España*, lib. ii. *Alfonso de Palencia*, *Decades* (as quoted by *Ferreras*, *Histoire Générale*, tom. vi. passim). *Zurita*, *Anales de la Corona de Aragon*, tom. iv. lib. 30. *Lemos*, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. vii. liv. 28. p. 39. This last-named author is very accurate and faithful where his own countrymen are not concerned.

powers than the gendarmerie of a neighboring state. These powers were designed by the artful monarch, to curb the prerogatives of the seigniorial nobles, who were as much subjected to it as the other classes of the public.*

1480 If the salutary severity of these sovereigns had been
to directed only against the perturbators of the public
1484 peace, the brightness of their fame would almost have
been unclouded. Unfortunately they were equally

severe against all who ventured to differ from the established faith. Against apostates,—all converts who, after baptism, reverted to Judaism, or the faith of Islam,—their hatred was implacable. In this apostasy, Andalusia was the most conspicuous. At the instance of some ecclesiastics of Seville,—a place more obnoxious than any other to this “pestilence,”—they established a novel tribunal in that city, which should have unlimited power over the property and lives of all religious delinquents,—over all, at least, who, within a given period, did not appear before it, express contrition for their apostasy, and submit to such penance as might be awarded them. The judges were three; all learned in the canon and civil law, and all strictly enjoined to spare no pains in seeking out delinquents, and, after condemnation, in delivering them over to the secular arm. The institution was approved by the pope: who, in the same bull, left the nomination of the inquisitors to the sovereigns and their successors. The new judges proceeded with vigor in their odious calling. Seville, however, was not the only place where apostasy abounded: it was almost as prevalent in the kingdom of Toledo. In 1483, another papal bull authorized the establishment of similar tribunals in other towns of Castile and Leon, all subject to one supreme head, who, under the title of grand inquisitor, should exercise uncontrolled authority over their proceedings. The first churchman who filled this high dignity was the prior of Santa Cruz, at Segovia, the celebrated don Tomas de Torquemada, a Dominican friar, whose soul was inaccessible to pity, and who, in cruelty, might almost pass for an incarnation of the evil principle. Yet there is evidence enough to prove that this extraordinary man was uniformly swayed by a sense of what he considered duty: his manners were mild, his demeanor humble, his austerities severe, if not unexampled. His zeal soon placed him over similar tribunals formed in Aragon, Catalonia, and Valencia,—provinces, however, which were highly indignant at so wanton an innovation on their freedom, and which long but vainly resisted its introduction among them. By all the writers of the period its proceedings were acknowledged to have been char-

* See the last chapter of the present book.

acterized by excessive rigor. The tribunal of Seville, alone, in the short space of thirty-six years,—from 1484 to 1520,—consigned 4000 victims to the flames, besides many times that number condemned to the galleys, to a perpetual or limited imprisonment, and other punishments. Humanity shudders at the recital.*

The intolerance, no less than the folly, of the Catholic sovereigns was still more conspicuous in regard to the Jews. Scarcely had they obtained possession of Granada, than they promulgated a decree, in which all Jews who refused to embrace Christianity were ordered to be expelled the kingdom in six months: they were allowed, within that period, to dispose of their property; but, as they were forbidden to take away its value in the precious metals, they could only change it—doubtless on unfavorable terms—for the produce or manufactures of the Peninsula. That persecuted people were filled with equal astonishment and dismay at this unexpected mandate: nor was it more agreeable to the Christian inhabitants of the commercial towns on the coast, who had long lived on good terms with the Israelites, and who beheld with alarm the fatal blow which their banishment must inevitably inflict on the national industry. Representations to this effect were made to the two sovereigns, not only by the Jews, by the Christians; but in vain: the current of bigotry had set in too strongly to be stemmed. Many consented to be baptized; but the far greater number, in profound despair, prepared to leave the country of their birth. On the expiration of the period prescribed, 83,000 removed into Portugal, the king of which consented to receive them, on the condition of their submitting to a capitation tax of one crusado for every individual. About 30,000 families retired to France, Italy, and Africa; the means of transport being furnished them by the government. By the Moors—the most detestable, because the most perfidious and cruel nation on earth—they were treated with characteristic barbarity. Many of them were known, and more suspected, to have swallowed precious stones; their living bodies were opened by the savage miscreants. All who fell into Moorish hands were stripped, not only of their sub-

* *Æl. Ant. Nehrisensis, Rerum Hispanarum Decades*, dec. i. lib. 6. Lucius Marineus Siculus, *De Rebus Hispaniæ*, lib. xi. &c. (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). Mariana, *De Rebus Hispanica*, lib. 24 (apud eundem, tom. iv.). Blancas, *Rerum Aragonensium Commentarii*, p. 706. (apud eundem, tom. iii.). Hernando' del Pulgar, *Cronica de los Señores Reyes Catolicos*, parte segunda, cap. 92, &c. Salazar de Mendoza, *Cronica del Gran Cardenal de España*, lib. iii. Zurita, *Anales de Aragon*, tom. iv. lib. 20. Ferreras, *Histoire Générale d'Espagne* (by Hermilly), tom. vii. Sarnier, *Considération sur les Causes de la Grandeur et de la Décadence de la Monarchie Espagnole*, tom. i. cap. 17. et *Histoire des Cortes d'Espagne*, cap. 22, cum multis aliis.

stance, but of their very clothing.* Such as escaped, returned gradually, and in small numbers at a time, to the Peninsula, which, to the converts, held out the hand of hospitality, and even of brotherly affection. Those who proceeded to Portugal were not much more fortunate: no sooner had the avaricious king, Juan II., filled his coffers with their wealth, than he published a similar edict, dooming to hopeless slavery all who, within the period of some months, did not either embrace Christianity or leave the kingdom. Though he seemed afterwards to experience something like human pity, and did not strictly enforce the penalty incurred by the great numbers who remained; and though his successor, Don Manuel, seemed as loth to proceed to extremities, the remonstrances of the Castilian sovereigns at length determined the latter to approve himself a true son of the church. He renewed his predecessor's decree, whom he exceeded in rigor. He not only reduced to slavery all who had no wish to embark, but ordered the children under fourteen years of age, of both exiles and slaves, to be forcibly taken from the parents and baptized. The lamentations of these unhappy wretches would have touched any heart but that of a bigot. Fury in many cases succeeded despair: parents cast their infant children into the sea, or to the bottom of wells, or stabbed them, or strangled them. The king was immovable: he even refused to allow the parents, who now wished to embark, the means of transport: slavery or baptism was the alternative. Many thousands did, at length, profess Christianity with their lips; but must have abhorred it in their hearts.

1499 The establishment of the inquisition led to the ban-
to ishment of the Jews; the latter, in its turn, to the
1502. persecution of the Mohammedans. These soon found
that their religious toleration, so solemnly guaranteed
by the articles of capitulation, would be little respected by a prince who did not always hesitate to break his royal word—nor even his oath—when his interests or his bigotry were concerned. It is certain, that, from the very year in which Granada submitted, the resolution was taken to convert or expel the Moors; but their number, the assistance they might receive from Africa, and the unsettled state of the new conquests, delayed its execution. In 1499, however, Fernando, being at Granada, seriously entered on what he doubtless considered a path of stern but necessary duty. Having assembled some of his counsellors and prelates to deliberate on the proper means of attaining an object so momentous, it was agreed that both

* These were not the only hardships supported by the exiles:—"Não he dizível a perseguição que fizeram os Mouros, a esta escoria das gentes. Elles os affrontarão, os roubarão os escarnecerão, e á vista dos fraíres e das maridas dormiao com as mulheres e as filhas."—*Lemos*, viii. 208. The Jewish blood must surely have risen at such scenes.

end and means should be left to two eminent prelates,—to Francisco Ximenes Cisneros, archbishop of Toledo, and to Fernando de Talavera, metropolitan of Granada. Though zealous in an equal degree for the conversion of the misbelievers, their characters were widely different: the former was rigid and unbending in his measures; the latter, mild and conciliating: the one would have recourse to force; the other to persuasion. In selecting two such opposite instruments, it was, doubtless, intended, that the gentleness of don Fernando should be fortified by the decision of his colleague: through his influence it doubtless was, that the first steps in the great work were of a mild and rational nature. The alfaquis were assiduously courted; were persuaded to dispute on the merits of their respective faiths; and were severally dismissed with presents. Whether through conviction or fear,—through persuasion or interest, these men forsook their own religion, and consented not only to be baptized, but to become the instruments of converting their countrymen. Their example had great effect: thousands applied for admission into the church; and thousands more would have joined them at the same time, but for the fiery zeal of cardinal Cisneros,* which occasioned a serious disturbance in the quarter of the Albaycin, wholly occupied by Moors. Seeing that some of their body, who protested against the prelate's violence, were by his order conducted to prison, they arose, murdered an obnoxious alguazil, and hastened to don Francisco's hotel, which they assailed.† It was found that the interests of the church militant were confided to good hands: he fought with great spirit; and, though importuned by his servants to save himself in the impregnable fortress of the Alhambra, he disdained to leave his post, and expressed his

* He consumed by fire all the Arabic controversial books he could find, which amounted to 5000 volumes; 'Ergo alfaquinis ad omnia obsequia eo tempore exhibenda promptis (money was here efficaciously employed), Alchoranos, id est, sum superstitionis gravissimos libros, et omnes cujuscuque authoris et generis essent Mahometanæ impietatis radices, facili sine edicto aut vi, ut in publicum adducerentur impetravit. Quinque millia voluminum sunt fere congregata," &c.—*Gomocius, de Rebus Gestis Ximenii*, lib. i. Who taught the prelate to distinguish the controversial from other works? Literature has probably reason to curse this zealot's memory: we know not that any were spared by this mitred Goth, except "aliquot ad rem medicam pertinentia." Yet this very man was the editor of the celebrated Complutensian polyglot!

† One of these delinquents was a zegri, who, as he exclaimed loudly against the violence adopted, was confined, by the archbishop's order, in a prison of more than usual strength, and heavily fettered; as he was a bold-spirited man. One of the prelate's clerical domestics, Pedro Leon by name, was shut up with him, as much to tame his ferocity as to effect his conversion. What passed between them we know not, but there is reason to believe that the fierce Moor was more beaten than argued into repentance. The Moor insisted on being brought before the cardinal, demanded baptism, and declared that no Mohammedan, if shut up with the Castilian as he had been, could long withstand this ferocissimus leo; "cui si nostri semel committantur, nemo erit qui non illico Christianus fiat!"—*Gomocius*, p. 959.

resolution to share in the common danger. The commotion continued for several days: the whole Albaycin was in arms; and the insurrection would have spread farther, but for the virtuous intrepidity of the metropolitan of Granada. Though a messenger of peace had been stoned to death the preceding day by the Moors of that quarter, he resolved to go among them, and persuade them to lay down their arms. Accompanied by a single chaplain, with the cross borne before him, this excellent man appeared suddenly among them, with his usual serene countenance, and the same affectionate manner. In a moment every murmur was hushed: numbers flocked round him to kiss his garments; and, in the sequel, obeyed his exhortations, by laying down their arms. In the mean time, the king, who had been made acquainted with the insurrection, blamed the undue zeal of the Toledan archbishop. That prelate, however, whose eloquence was great, and whose intentions were appreciated, contrived to regain the royal favor, and was permitted to pursue his career of conversion. But the mischief was not yet ended: if the inhabitants of Granada were tranquil for a time, those of the neighboring towns,—those especially who abode in the mountains of the Alpujarras,—were filled with fury at the forcible attempts made to seduce their brethren from the faith of the prophet; and they flew to arms. The king himself marched to reduce them; pursued them into the heart of their hills; forced or persuaded them to submit, and to surrender both their fortified places and their arms. His success emboldened him to more decisive measures: missionaries were dispatched, wherever there was a Mohammedan village, to preach the necessity of immediate conversion: and the efficacy of their labors was not a little owing to the armed bodies of soldiers who accompanied them. Terrified by the recent fate of the Jews, whole towns submitted to baptism; the more willingly, perhaps, as no previous instruction was forced upon them: there was no time for catechism or preaching: hundreds were sprinkled with holy water at the same time; the same prayers were repeated over them, and they stood cleansed in the laver of regeneration! That such conversions could not be very durable, need not surprise us. The following year, the independent mountaineers again revolted, and massacred all the Christians on whom they could lay hands. They were again reduced: 10,000 submitted to the necessary rite; while a greater number fled to their African brethren. A third time, in the space of a very few months, were the embers of discontent fanned into a flame,—partly by the injudicious zeal of the Christian priests, partly by the strong breath of indignation. This insurrection was the most difficult to quell: one or two partial successes were obtained over the royal troops; but, on

the appearance of Fernando in person, with a formidable power, the revolted fortresses submitted. Again did thousands obtain his permission to settle on the opposite coast, and bade a final adieu to the Peninsula. By their departure, those who remained were still less able to make head against the victor, who no longer hesitated to issue his irrevocable decree of expulsion against every obstinate follower of the Arabian prophet. It was punctually executed: such as refused to embrace Christianity, joined their brethren in Morocco.*

In other respects, the policy of Fernando was as enlightened as it was beneficial to the country. The great barons had been too powerful for his predecessors: to curtail their immunities was his constant object. By encouraging the confederation of the towns, he effectively destroyed their influence over those places; and, by subjecting them to the ordinary tribunals of justice, he still farther reduced them towards a level with his other subjects. The revocation of the profuse grants made to certain powerful favorites,—a revocation solicited by the assembled states in cortes, and vigorously carried into effect,—brought him still nearer to his end. But, so long as the mastership of the great military orders was conferred on the leading barons, the monarchy could never be secure: the means thus placed at the disposal of the ambitious, in addition to those hereditarily acquired, rendered the subject too formidable, if not for the sovereign's existence, at least, for his peace. To vest this dignity in the crown was his great object. On the death of the grand master of Calatrava, he forbade the election, assumed the administration of the order, and procured the papal sanction to its perpetual union with the crown. In 1493, by the death of the grand master of Santiago, he assumed the administration of that order also. Being thus fortunately possessed of the orders of Calatrava and Santiago, in 1494, he bribed don Juan de Zuñiga, grand master of Alcantara, to resign that dignity also, which, in like manner, became for ever merged in the person of the reigning monarch.

The final subjugation of the Mohammedans, the consolidation of the royal power, the union of Aragon to Castile and Leon, were noble monuments of Fernando's policy. The discovery of

* *Aelius Antonius Nebrissensis, Rerum Hispanarum Decades*, dec. i. et ii. *Lucius Marineus Siculus, De Rebus Hispaniæ*, lib. xxi. *Franciscus Tarapha, De Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 569. *Alvarus Gomecius, De Rebus Gestis à Francisco Ximeno Cisnerio*, lib. i. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). *Mariana, De Rebus Hispaniæ*, lib. xxvii. (apud eundem, tom. iv.). *Zurita, Historia del Rey Hernando el Católico*, tom. i. lib. 1—3. *Blancas, Rerum Aragonensium Commentarii*, p. 707. (apud Schottum, tom. iii. *Marmol Carvajal, Historia del Rebelión y Castigo de los Moriscos del Reyno de Granada*, tom. i. lib. 1. *Condé, as spoiled by Marlés, Histoire de la Domination des Arabes, &c. en Espagne*, tom. iii.; cum aliis.

1492 a new world by the famous navigator, Christopher
 to Columbus, still more strongly attracts the notice of pos-
 1494. ternity to this splendid reign. Into the vast field of
 American discovery, colonization, and history, whether
 by Spaniards or Portuguese,—a subject which, to do it justice,
 would require as many volumes as this compendium itself,—
 we cannot enter; and, fortunately, most of the works on this
 subject are of so easy access,* that our silence need not be re-
 gretted. To Isabel must be ascribed the glory of the enter-
 prise. At first she received with natural coldness the proposals
 of this wonderful man; but overcome at length by the repre-
 sentation of a monk, the friend of Columbus, and still more by
 the resistless reasoning of the navigator himself, whom she
 admitted to her presence, she borrowed the sum of money ne-
 cessary for the armament, and bade him depart. This was in
 April, 1492. In the same month of the following year, he re-
 turned from his first voyage, bringing with him a considerable
 quantity of gold, silver, and other productions of the New
 World, with several Indians,—convincing proofs of his success-
 ful adventure. The extraordinary honors with which he was
 received by the astonished sovereigns,—being permitted to re-
 main seated in their presence, and created admiral of the Indies,
 with suitable means of supporting the dignity,—encouraged
 him to new enterprises. With a fleet of eighteen vessels,
 containing 1200 seamen, 300 mechanics, 12 priests to convert
 the heathens, and a considerable number of horses, sheep, &c.,
 he again left Spain, in the month of September, 1493, and
 happily reached his destination. On returning from this sec-
 ond voyage, being driven by stress of weather into the port of

* See Raynal, *Histoire Philosophique et Politique des Etablissements et du Commerce des Européens dans les Deux Indes*; Robertson's *History of America*; and De Solis, *History of the Discovery and Conquest of Mexico*. The reader who wishes to acquire a more extensive and more accurate insight—for Raynal has many blunders, and Robertson many more—into this interesting subject, may consult Barcia, *Historiadores Primitivos de las Indias Occidentales*, 3 vols. fol. Madrid, 1740; Cortes, *Historia de Nueva España, Mexico*, fol. 1770; Garcilasso de la Vega, *Historia General del Perú*, 6 *Comentarios Reales de los Incas*, 17 vols. 12mo. Madrid, 1800-3; Herrera, *Descripción de las Islas y Tierra-firma del Mar Oceano*, &c. 4 vols. fol. Madrid, 1730; Barros, *Asia, Feitos que os Portuguezes fizeram na Conquista e Descobrimiento das Terras e Mares do Oriente*, 24 vols. 8vo. Lisbon, 1779; *Collecion de los Viajes y Descubrimientos que hicieron por Mar los Españoles desde fines del Siglo XV.*, compiled by Navarrete, Madrid, 1825, &c., of which three volumes only have yet appeared, but which promises to contain, beyond all comparison, the best elements for a history of Spanish discovery. Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal e suas Conquistas*, 20 vols. 12mo. Lisbon, 1786, &c. We have not seen Southey's *History of Brazil*, 3 vols. 4to.; but, from the unrivalled acquaintance of that writer with the original authorities, there can be no doubt of its superior merit. A comprehensive history of maritime discovery, of subsequent conquests and colonization, is, and will probably for ever continue to be, a desideratum in our literature, as it is at present in that of every other European country. Raynal did not possess the requisite research, even for a more limited undertaking.

Lisbon, he was compelled to acquaint don Joam with the productions, climate, and riches of the New World; and the monarch's eagerness for wealth and empire was so excited, that he resolved to fit out some vessels of discovery in the same direction. But as, by a papal bull, the sovereignty both of the regions which had been, and might thenceforward be, discovered was conferred on Fernando and his successors, Joam could not decently bid the expedition depart until he had given notice of his intention to the Castilian sovereigns. He could produce papal bulls, as well as they, which had been conceded to his predecessors, and in virtue of which he conceived that he had an exclusive right to the discovery and dominion of the countries. As both thus founded their claim on the fancied power of Christ's vicar to confer the kingdoms of the world on whom he pleased, the affair was submitted to the pope, who sagely decided that a meridian drawn from north to south, 100 leagues westward of the meridian of the Canaries, should bound the mutual possessions and right of maritime discovery of the two kings. But the Portuguese was dissatisfied with the narrow limits assigned him: he renewed his remonstrances to Fernando: the affair was submitted to arbitration; and, after much dispute, it was agreed that the boundary of the Portuguese claim should be extended to 370 leagues westward of the Cape de Verd islands. Thus comfortably did the two monarchs divide between themselves the maritime dominion of the globe; nor could they see how soon the rude hands of the English and Dutch would break their sceptre.

But the happiness of the Catholic sovereigns was not commensurate with the splendor which surrounded them. To whom must their magnificent empire devolve? In 1497, the infante Juan, their only son, whom they had just married to the archduchess Margarita of Austria, died, and his widow was soon afterwards brought to bed of a still-born child. Hence their daughters only remained, through whom they could hope to transmit their sceptre to posterity; but even in this expectation they were doomed to much disappointment. Doña Isabel, the eldest of the princesses, who was married to the heir of the Portuguese monarchy, was left a widow as soon as the archduchess Margarita; and though she was next given to her brother-in-law, don Manuel, now become king of Portugal, and the following year was delivered of a son, she died at the time; nor did the young prince, the acknowledged heir of the whole Peninsula, Navarre excepted, long survive her. Still, to be prepared against every possible contingency, they married another daughter, the princess Maria, to the Lusitanian widower; and their youngest, Catharine, destined to be so famous from her connexion with the English

reformation, first to Arthur prince of Wales, and next to Henry, his brother, afterwards Henry VIII. Their hopes of an heir, however, rested in their second daughter, Juana, the wife of Philip archduke of Austria, who, in 1500, was delivered of a prince, afterwards the celebrated Charles V. Thus, the crown of Spain was to devolve on a foreign brow,—the first example of the kind which had occurred from the foundation of the monarchy by Pelayo. Their disappointments, too, were embittered by the unhappiness of their children. The princess Isabel, who had always shown more affection for the cloister than for the throne, had been forced into the marriage, and died a premature and painful death. Juana, though extravagantly fond of her husband, was treated by him with the most marked neglect; and the fate of Catherine is but too well known.

1504. The misfortunes of her children sunk deeply into the heart of the queen, and brought on a melancholy which ended in her death, at Medina del Campo, in 1504. In her last will she left her daughter Juana, and after that princess her grandson Charles, heirs to the monarchy. As Juana was too weak in understanding to be intrusted with the cares of government, she appointed her husband regent of the kingdom, until Charles should attain his twentieth year. In this disposition she consulted both her own inclination and the interests of her people; as she had a natural dislike to the vain, weak, and profligate Philip, and knew that the administration could not be continued in abler hands than those which held it. To Fernando, too, she bequeathed the administration of the three military orders during his life, and half the revenues of the Indies.

If we except our Elizabeth, and Catherine of Russia, no princess of modern times can equal Isabel in ability, or in the success of her administration: and, in the qualities of her heart, in Christian fervor, and an unspotted life, how far does she not exceed either! Prudent in the formation, yet prompt in the execution, of her plans; severe towards guilt, yet merciful towards misfortune; unbending in her purposes, yet submissive to her husband; of rigid virtue, yet indulgent to minor frailties; devout without ostentation, and proud without haughtiness; feeling towards the pains of others, yet exhibiting no sentiment of her own,* she might well command the respect, no less than the affection, of her people. Of her humble piety an anecdote is related, with great applause, by Catholic writers. When the

* "Guardaba tanto la continencia del rostro que aun en los tiempos de sus partos encubria su sentimiento, y forzabase á no mostrar ni decir la pena que en aquella hora sientan y muestran las mugeres."—*Hernando del Pulgar*, ii. 37.

sovereigns of Castile were at confession, it was usual for the priest to kneel at the same time with themselves. The first time she attended this duty, after her elevation to the throne, she knelt; but the priest, Fernando de Talavera, quietly seated himself beside her. On her expressing some surprise that he also did not kneel, the friar replied, "This, señora, is the tribunal of God, whom I here represent, and I shall therefore remain seated; your highness will continue to kneel!" After her devotions were concluded, instead of expressing any resentment, she observed to an attendant, "This is just the director I have long sought!" The friar became archbishop of Granada. Her only defect—yet it is surely great enough—is her approval of the infernal tribunal which consigned to torture, imprisonment, or death, so many thousands of her subjects. Strange that this very lady, whom sufferings so exquisite could not move, should have been the constant and successful advocate of the Moors, whenever any town or fortress was taken by storm.*

JUANA AND PHILIP I. Before Isabel breathed her 1504.
last, the dissensions commenced which so much embittered the life of her husband. That, by the Castilian laws, Juana was now both queen and proprietor of the kingdom, and that Philip, in right of his marriage, might claim not only the regal title, but a considerable share in the administration, were admitted by many. On the other hand, the last will of Isabel, who had constituted her husband regent until the majority of Charles—the experience of that prince—the success of his past government—the solid benefits which he had conferred on the state,—and the unpopular character of Philip, as well as his ignorance of the language, laws, and manners of Castile,—induced all the sober-judging and patriotic part of the nation to wish for a continuance of the present rule. Unfortunately, however, the momentous question was agitated with more prejudice than reason. The efforts of Fernando to curb the violence of the aristocracy—his prudent economy—his firm sway,—and the aversion of many Castilians to the sole domination of an Aragonese, had created many enemies. More hoped that, under a weak and lenient prince like Philip, their love of power and their avarice would be equally gratified. Hence, it is no wonder that an opposition, at once systematic

* Zurita, *Historia del Rey Hernando el Catolico*, tom. i. lib. 2—5. Lucius Marineus Siculus, *De Rebus Hispaniæ*, lib. xxi. Franciscus Tarapha, *De Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 568. Alvarus Gomecius, *De Rebus Gestis Francisci Ximenii*, lib. iii. et iv. (omnes apud Schottum, *Hispanica Illustrata*, tom. i.). Blancas, *Rerum Aragonensium Commentarii*, p. 707. (apud eundem, tom. iii.) Mariana, *de Rebus Hispaniciæ*, lib. xxvii. (apud eundem, tom. iv.). Moret, *Anales del Reyno de Navarra*, tom. iii. Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. viii. et ix. Ferreras, *Histoire Générale d'Espagne*, by Hermilly, tom. viii.; cum aliis.

and violent, was formed to the pretensions of Fernando,—an opposition too loud to permit the soft whisper of policy or gratitude to be heard.

1504 Fernando was fond of power; and his first steps
to showed that he would strive to maintain it. Having
1506. caused his daughter and her husband to be proclaimed queen and king of Castile, he convoked the cortes at Toro, early in 1505, to procure their sanction to his regency. The majority readily granted it; but not a few of the discontented, because disappointed, nobles retired from Toro in disgust, assembled others of the same faction at Valladolid, and wrote letters to Philip, then governor of Flanders, pressing him to come and assume the administration of the kingdom. The archduke, eager to seize his consort's inheritance, had the insolence to order his father-in-law to retire into Aragon, against whose every act of government, since the death of Isabel, he equally protested. Fernando replied, that the affair must be settled by negotiation; that in no case would he resign the regency until his daughter and son-in-law arrived in Castile. At the same time, he solicited from the queen, then with her husband in Flanders, the confirmation of his powers as regent. She caused the instrument to be prepared; but the treachery of a servant exposed the intrigue to Philip, who placed her in close confinement, and lost even the semblance of respect towards her. The latter also entered into an alliance with Charles VIII. of France, the enemy of Fernando, by whose aid he hoped to make head against the regent. In the mean time, the factious nobles, who, though constituting a minority in point of numbers, were all-powerful from their stations and alliances, continually urged Philip to appear among them, and throw every obstacle in the path of the regent. Seeing the ungrateful return of a people for whom he had done so much,—whose glory and happiness he had so successfully labored to promote,—and still more offended, perhaps, with the insults of his profligate son-in-law, the king of Aragon seriously planned a suitable revenge: it was, to remarry,* and leave to the issue arising from it the kingdom of Naples, which he had united with Aragon, or, perhaps, even

* "Exasperated at this universal defection, and mortified, perhaps, at seeing all his schemes defeated by a younger politician, Ferdinand resolved, in defiance of the law of nations and of decency, to deprive his daughter and her posterity of the crown of Castile, rather than renounce the regency of that kingdom. His plan for accomplishing this was no less bold than the intention itself was wicked. He demanded in marriage Joanna, the supposed daughter of Henry IV." &c.—*Robertson's Charles V.* vol. ii.

Surely this historian must have known that this pretended negotiation with the Portuguese king was but a calumny, invented by the enemies of Fernando, to discredit him with the people. By no contemporary writer is it mentioned otherwise than a rumor, and by all it is treated with the contempt it deserves. The age of the princess, which was full forty-four years,

Aragon itself. Concealing his long enmity towards Charles, he solicited the hand of Germaine de Foix, niece of that monarch, who eagerly granted it. This intelligence was a thunderbolt to Philip, who now consented to negotiate; and it was accordingly agreed, by the agents of the two princes, at Salamanca, that the kingdom should be governed by Juana, Fernando, and Philip,—each possessing equal authority; and that all public instruments should bear the three names. The Austrian, however, had no intention of observing the treaty: early in 1506, he embarked for Spain with his consort; but contrary winds forced him to England, where he was detained, during three months, by the ungenerous policy of Henry VII. The king of France had refused him a passage through that kingdom until he had come to a better understanding with the regent:—in fact, Charles could not, as a close ally of Fernando, permit an expedition through his states, evidently hostile to that ally. When Fernando heard of the archduke's embarkation, he caused prayers to be offered up for a prosperous voyage, and ordered a fleet to be equipped to convoy the new sovereigns into the Peninsula. He had just celebrated his marriage with the princess Germaine, when his daughter and the archduke landed at Coruña.*

No sooner was Philip landed, than the nobles disaffected to Fernando hastened to meet him, and, by their 1506. sinister reports, to increase his jealousy of the regent. To dissipate his suspicions, Fernando sent the archbishop Ximenes, his stedfast counsellor, who was charged with the appropriate duty of restoring concord between the two princes. But the arrogance of Philip, who was entirely led by the advice of his Flemings and the discontented Castilians, caused him, not only to do every thing which he knew would mortify his father-in-law, but to refuse an interview frequently requested by Fernando. From the levity—we might add, the perfidy—with which he annulled the treaty of Salamanca, and openly declared his resolution to expel Fernando from Castile, the latter, though still disposed to peace, saw that it was high time for him to prepare for the worst. He ordered troops to

sufficiently exposes the malignity. The boldness of the historian's relation, and of his appeal to authorities which are either silent on the subject, or opposed to him, is not the least unaccountable feature of the case.

* "They (Philip and Juana) were obliged, by a violent tempest, to take shelter in England, where Henry VII., in compliance with Ferdinand's solicitations, detained them upwards of three months: at last, they were permitted to depart; and, after a more prosperous voyage, they arrived in safety at Corunna, in Galicia (April 28); nor durst Ferdinand attempt, as he had once intended, to oppose their landing by force of arms."—*Robertson*, ii. 13.

All this is at variance with both truth and probability; nor does Ferreras, the only authority cited for this unjust declamation, afford the slightest ground for it!

be raised, both to vindicate his own right, and to rescue his daughter from the ignominious restraint in which she was kept by her husband. Owing, however, to the artful representations of the disaffected barons, the party of Philip increased daily, and Fernando was, at length, compelled to resign the regency into the hands of the archduke alone, Juana being by both considered incompetent to govern. He retained the grand-mastership and administration of the three military orders, with the other legacies of Isabel; and, after two interviews with Philip, returned to his hereditary dominions.*

1506. Having gained the object of his ambition, Philip convoked the cortes at Valladolid, in the hope that he should procure their consent to the removal of the queen from all affairs; in other words, to her perpetual confinement, on the ground of her incapacity. The opposition, however, which he there encountered, made him abandon his iniquitous purpose. All that the states would do was, to swear allegiance to Juana as their natural sovereign, to him as her consort, and to acknowledge the archduke Charles, their son, as heir to the crown. Before he had time to become unpopular, he fell suddenly sick at Burgos, and died in five months after his arrival in Spain, and three from the commencement of his administration. The grief of the queen knew no bounds: in four hours after his death, she had the corpse embalmed, removed to her own apartment, and laid, magnificently arrayed, on a splendid couch; nor would she quit it, during night or day, for some time.† Perhaps she hoped that the efficacy of her prayers would restore him to life.

1506 Immediately after Philip's death, the Castilian nobles assembled to consult on the form of government. As to the queen refused to give any orders on the subject, 1507. they chose a council of seven from among themselves, to whom they provisionally confided the conduct of affairs. Men with equal authority and conflicting views could not long remain in harmony: they felt that their own power was insecure, and each was anxious to look out for some superior whose favor he might obtain. All perceived that, until prince

* Alvarus Gomecius, *De Rebus Gestis Francisci Ximenii*, lib. iii. (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). Franciscus Tarapha, *De Regibus Hispaniæ*, p. 568. (in eodem tomo). Blancas, *Rerum Aragonensium Commentarii*. (apud eundem, iii. 711.) Mariana, *de Rebus Hispaniæ*, lib. xxviii. cap. 1222. (apud eundem, tom. iv.). Zurita, *Historia del Rey Hernando el Católico*, tom. ii. lib. 6. Lemos, *Historia Geral de Portugal*, tom. ix. Ferreras, *Histoire Générale d'Espagne*, by Hermilly, tom. v. iii.

† Childish as was the affection of Juana for her husband, she did not, as Robertson relates, cause the body to be removed from the sepulchre after it was buried, and brought to her apartment. She once visited the sepulchre, and, after affectionately gazing on the corpse, was persuaded to retire.—Mariana, lib. xxix. cap. 3. Robertson seems not to have read, at least not with care, the authorities for the reign of Fernando.

Charles reached his majority, there must be a regency; that their own jealousies could not confide it to a native; and that there were but two foreigners to whom it could be intrusted, — Fernando, and the emperor Maximilian, father of the deceased king. Of course, the reflecting part of the nation were in favor of the experienced Aragonese; but such as feared his resentment, and, still more, those who knew the vigor of his sceptre, and his frugality, loudly clamored for the Asturian. The turbulent conduct of the nobles, who began to renew the scenes which had so disgraced the reigns of Juan II. and Enrique IV.; who trampled under foot law and order, and purposed to wrap the kingdom in flames, increased the anxiety, and hastened the exertions of every friend to the public tranquillity. The illustrious Cisneros, above all, one of the temporary regents, spared neither expostulation nor entreaties to insure the recall of Fernando. That prince was in Italy when he received intelligence of Philip's death. He showed no great haste to return; his emissaries and friends exerted themselves so well in his behalf, that his resumption of the regency was soon acknowledged to be the only means of saving a kingdom already on the brink of ruin. At length, in July, 1507, he disembarked at Valencia, whence he proceeded to Saragossa, where, having appointed his young queen regent of the kingdom, he went into Castile. By his daughter he was immediately invested with the whole power of government, and by degrees his authority was recognized throughout the kingdom. Before him insurrection quailed, the laws resumed their empire, and prosperity revisited the people.

The second administration of this able prince was signalized by the same splendid effects. In 1509, at the suggestion of cardinal Cisneros, he proposed an expedition against Oran on the African coast. The cardinal not only defrayed the expense, but accompanied it. It was completely successful: Oran was stormed, and forced to receive a Christian garrison. The following year, Bugia, a city on the same coast, was reduced; Algiers, Tunis, Tremecen, and other places, consented that their native governors should be the vassals of Fernando. Another expedition reduced Tripoli. In 1511, he himself was preparing to embark with a formidable armament, to pursue his conquests into that country,—conquests, however, which his own experience proved to be fleeting,—when he was pressed by pope Julian to aid the church against the schismatics under the protection of the king of France and the emperor. As he was even more proud of his title of Catholic king than desirous of glory, he dispatched an armed force to aid the chief of the church. Into the interminable affairs of Italy, however,—the critical wars which Fer-

nando carried on in that country in defence of his Sicilian and Neapolitan possessions,—we cannot enter. Those possessions were dependent not on Castile, but on Aragon; and to the history of the latter kingdom the reader is referred for an account of the origin and progress of the connexion between Sicily, Naples, and Aragon. It is sufficient here to observe, that the war was for some time in favor of the French (the emperor had withdrawn from them), and that the papal allies were defeated.

1125. But this war led to one memorable result, and one not very glorious to Fernando. Wishing to carry hostilities into France, he demanded from Jean d'Albret, king of Navarre, permission to march his troops through that country. The Navarrese refused, but at the same time professed his determination in no way to aid the French monarch, and to remain perfectly neutral. Scarcely, however, had he given this answer, than he entered into an alliance, offensive and defensive, with the French king. Resolving to attain his end by force, and to punish the duplicity of the Navarrese, Fernando assembled his forces at Vittoria, invaded Navarre, and in a short time obtained possession of the whole kingdom, the royal family taking refuge in France. This new conquest, the details of which will be given on a future occasion,* he annexed to his kingdom of Aragon, and successfully defended it against the invasion of the French.

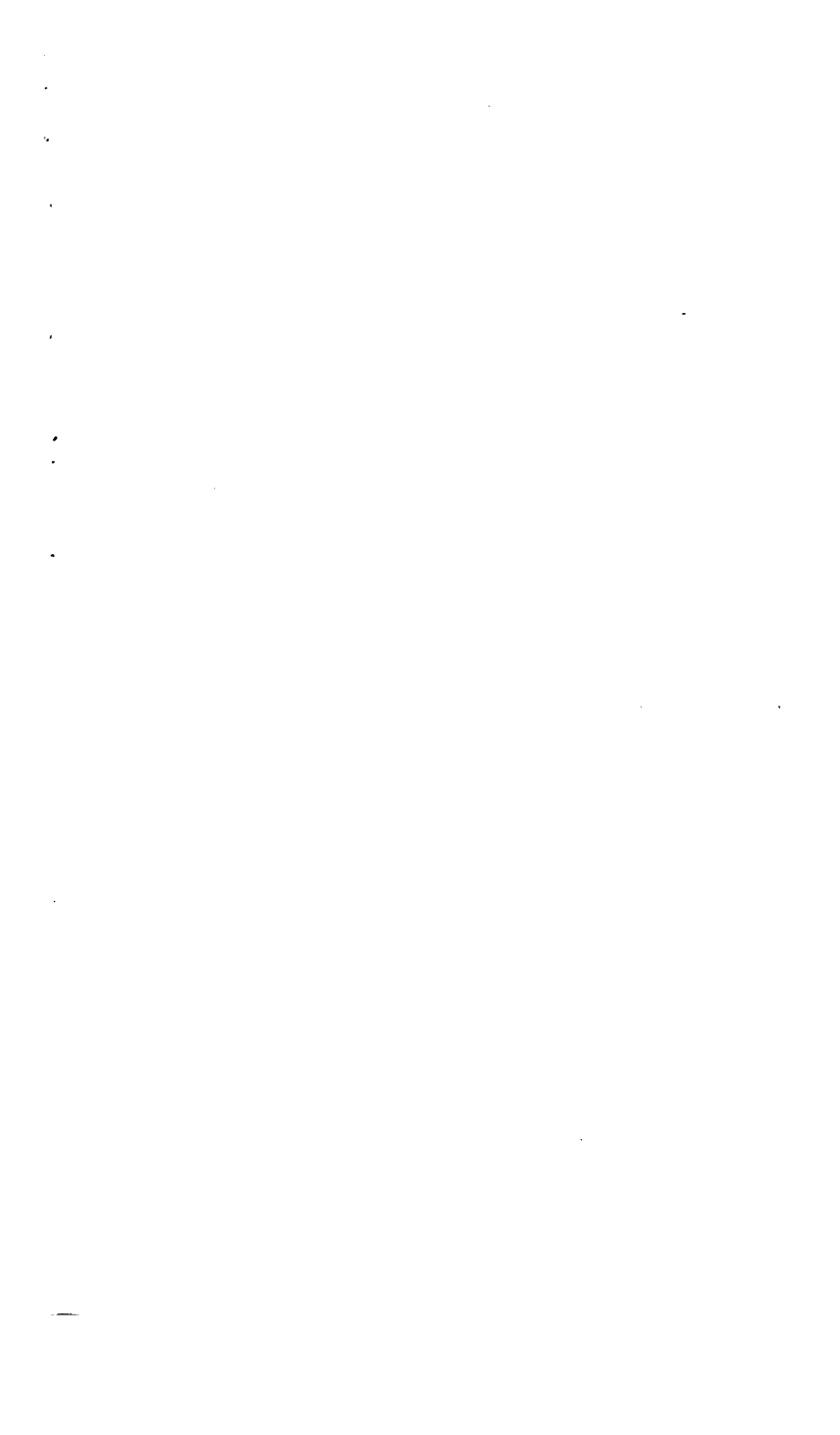
1512 Towards the close of his life, this prince still indulged the hope of seeing an heir who should inherit Aragon, to Navarre, Naples, and Sicily. This wish arose both from 1516. his dislike to the emperor, the grandfather of the archduke Charles, and the whole house of Austria, and from the aversion shown by his hereditary subjects to a union of the crowns. In 1509 his young queen had been delivered of a son, who died in a few days. In 1513 he took a potion which he was persuaded would restore his masculine vigor, but which destroyed his constitution, and produced a lingering illness, that ended in death, January 23, 1516. In his last will he declared his daughter Juana heiress to all his dominions in Spain and Italy, and after her his grandson Charles. The regency of Castile, until his grandson should arrive in Spain, he confided to cardinal Cisneros; and that of Aragon, with the states dependent on it, to his natural son, the archbishop of Saragossa.

Fernando was beyond doubt one of the ablest and best princes that ever swayed the sceptre of Spain. His actions will best bespeak his character. He is justly regarded as the founder of the Spanish monarchy; and though, during the latter years

* See the history of Navarre, in the next volume.

of his life, he wished to undo his own great work, let those bear the blame who thwarted his most salutary designs, who disputed his legitimate authority, and, with the basest ingratitude, returned rebellion and insult for the most signal benefits,—for a life worn out in their service. His chief faults were an immeasurable ambition, and a policy rather tortuous than direct. His memory, however, is held in great reverence in Spain. Notwithstanding his faults, and the hostility of Robertson and the French writers, who array his character and actions in the garb, not of history, but of prejudice and passion, posterity must regard him as the greatest prince of his age.*

* Gomecius, *De Rebus Gestis Francisci Ximenii*, lib. iv. necnon Antonius Nebrissensis, *De Bello Navariensi, et Franciscus Tarapha, De Regibus Hispanie* (apud Schottum *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.). Blancas, *Rerum Aragonesium Commentarii*, p. 712—715 (apud eundem, tom. iii.). Mariana, *De Rebus Hispanicis*, lib. xxx. (apud eundem, tom. iv.). Zurita, *Historia del Rey Hernando el Catolico*, tom. ii. lib. 8—10. Ferreras, *Histoire Générale d'Espagne* (by Hermilly), tom. viii. Robertson's *History of Charles the Fifth*, vol. ii. book 1.



GENEROSITY OF NARVAEZ.

THE following instance of generosity on the part of a Christian alcalde will not be read without interest, since it proves that, in a brave man, neither national nor religious prejudice can smother the best principles of our nature :—

"On the eve of an expedition, Narvaez (governor of Antequera) detached some horsemen to reconnoitre the country. The men, perceiving no enemy, were returning to Antequera, when, on turning a hill, they suddenly fell in with a Moorish horseman, and made him prisoner. He was a young man, about twenty-three years of age, of prepossessing appearance, richly habited, wearing a sword and buckler of exquisite workmanship, and mounted on a fine horse: he evidently belonged to some distinguished family of the country. He was brought before Narvaez, who asked him who he was, and whither he was going? He replied, in considerable emotion, that he was the son of the alcalde of Ronda; but, on endeavoring to continue his relation, his tears fell in such abundance that he could not add another word. 'Thou surprisest me!' said Narvaez. 'Thy father I know to be an intrepid warrior; but thou weepst like a woman! Dost thou not know that this is one of the ordinary chances of war?' 'I do not lament the loss of my liberty,' replied the Moor; 'but a misfortune a thousand times heavier!' Being pressed to explain the cause of his agitation, he said,—'I have long loved the daughter of a neighboring alcalde, and that love is returned. This very night was to see her mine: she is now waiting for me, and thy soldiers have detained me. I cannot describe my despair!'—'Thou art a noble cavalier!' replied the compassionate Christian. 'If thou wilt promise to return, I will allow thee to go and see thy mistress.' Full of gratitude, the Moor accepted the condition, and departed: before daylight he reached her dwelling. On learning the cause of his evident dejection, she said,—'Before this fatal moment thou hast always shown affection towards me; and now thou givest me new proofs of it. Thou fearest that if I follow thee I shall lose my liberty, and thou wishest me to remain; but dost thou think me less generous than thyself? My fate must be united with thine: whether free or enslaved, thou shalt always find me at thy side. In this casket are jewels sufficient either to pay thy ransom, or to support us both in slavery!' The two lovers immediately departed, and towards evening arrived at Antequera. They were nobly received by Narvaez, who passed the highest praise on the fidelity of the cavalier, and the affecting devotedness of the maiden: he not only dismissed them both, but loaded them with presents, and sent an escort to conduct them safely to Ronda. The news spread throughout the kingdom of Granada, and became the subject of many romances in which Narvaez was sung by his enemies,—a pleasing reward for his beneficence."—*Marlés' Conde*, iii. 305—308.

APPENDIX B. Page 129.

INAUGURATION OF PELAYO.

(See also Vol. I. p. 166.)

———"Thus when he ceased,
 He gave the awaited signal. Roderic brought
 The buckler: eight for strength and stature chosen
 Came to their honor'd office: Round the shield
 Standing, they lower it for the chieftain's feet,
 Then, slowly raised upon their shoulders, lift
 The steady weight. Erect Pelayo stands,
 And thrice he brandishes the shining sword,
 While Urban* to the assembled people cries,
 'Spaniards, behold your king!' The multitude
 Then sent forth all their voice with glad acclaim,
 Raising the loud *Real*: thrice did the word
 Ring through the air, and echo from the walls
 Of Cangas. Far and wide the thundering shout,
 Rolling among reduplicating rocks,
 Peal'd o'er the hills, and up the mountain vales.
 The wild ass, starting in the forest glade,
 Ran to the covert; the affrighted wolf
 Skulk'd through the thicket, to a closer brake;
 The sluggish bear, awaken'd in his den,
 Roused up, and answer'd with a sullen growl,
 Low breathed and long; and, at the uproar scared,
 The brooding eagle from her nest took wing."

Southey's Roderic, xviii. 63.

The poem from which these verses are extracted, is one of the finest in the whole range of our modern literature.

APPENDIX C. Page 130.

MIRACLE OF COVADUNGA.

(From Sebastian, bishop of Salamanca.)

"And when Pelayo knew the approach of the Arabs, he betook himself to a cave, which is called the cave of Santa Maria (St. Mary), and immediately posted his army around it. And Oppas, the bishop, approaching him, thus said:—'Brother, thou art not ignorant how when all Spain was under the rule of the Goths, and when all her armies were joined together, she was unable to cope with the Ismaelites: how much less will be thy power to defend thyself here in such a strait? Now listen to my advice: relinquish all thoughts of resistance; that, being in peace with the Arabs, thou mayst enjoy much prosperity, and

* The archbishop of Toledo, who performed the ceremony.

preserve whatever thou didst or dost possess.' And Pelayo replied, 'I will neither have the Arabs for friends, nor will I submit to their dominion. Thou dost not perceive that the church of God is like unto the moon; now it decreases, and now it regains its former magnitude. And we trust in God's mercy that from this very hill which thou beholdest, salvation may arise for Spain, and the Gothic army be renewed; so that in us may be fulfilled the saying of the prophet,—*I will visit their iniquities with a rod, and their sins with stripes; but my pity will I not withdraw from them.*' Wherefore, though we have undergone a righteous judgment, we yet believe that there will descend grace from on high for the restoration of our church, our nation, and kingdom. We fear not; we utterly despise this multitude of pagans.'

"Then the wicked bishop returned to the enemy, and said:—*'Hasten and fight; for by the sword only shall ye have peace with this man.'* Immediately they handle their weapons, and begin the battle: the engines are raised, the missiles fitted to the sling; the swords shine, the spears glitter, and the arrows are sent forth. But the weapons of the Lord were not wanting: for as the stones were shot from the slings and engines, and reached the temple of Holy Mary, ever a virgin, they were miraculously driven back on those who sent them, and killed a multitude of the Chaldeans. And as the Lord doth not number the spears, but giveth the victory to whom he pleaseth, so when the faithful left the cave to join in the battle, the Chaldeans forthwith fled, being divided into two bodies. And bishop Oppas was soon taken, and Alkaman slain; in the same place were also slain 124,000 of the Chaldeans. Sixty-three thousand who remained alive ascended the top of mount Anseva, and hastily descended by a precipice, which is usually called Amosa, to the territory of the Liebanians. But neither did these escape the Lord's vengeance; for when they reached the banks of the Deva, near a hermitage called Casegadia, that part of the hill which overhung the river suddenly gave way,—manifestly through God's judgment,—forced the 63,000 Chaldeans into the river, and covered them all. So that, even at this day, when the channel is swollen by the winter torrents, and the banks are overflowed, vestiges of arms and human bones are clearly to be seen. Do not esteem this a vain or false miracle, but remember that He who thus covered the Arabs, the persecutors of God's church, with such a vast mountain heap, is the same who plunged the Egyptians into the Red Sea while pursuing Israel."—*Espana Sagrada*, tom. xiii. p. 479.

The adjuration of the good bishop, who seemed to have a foreboding that his miracle might possibly be disputed, has had its due effect on his orthodox countrymen; very few of them are so daring as to call it in question. The relation in the text is natural, and doubtless true.

— "In the fated straits
Of Deva had the King disposed to rest:
Amid the hanging woods, and on the cliffs,
A long mile's length, on either side its bed,
They lay. The lever and the ax and saw
Had skilfully been plied; and trees and stones,
A dread artillery, ranged on crag and shelf
And steep descent, were ready at the word
Precipitate to roll resistless down.
The faithful maiden not more wistfully
Looks for the day that brings her lover home,
Scarce more impatiently the horse endures

The rein, when loud and shrill the hunter's horn
 Rings in his joyous ears, than at their post
 The mountaineers await their certain prey.
 Yet mindful of their Prince's order, oft
 And solemnly enforced, with eagerness
 Subdued by minds well master'd, they expect
 The appointed signal."

Nor did the Moors perceive in what a strait
 They enter'd; for the morn had risen o'ercast,
 And when the Sun had reach'd the height of heaven,
 Dimly his pale and beamless orb was seen
 Moving through mist.

—————" Low on the mountain side
 The fleecy vapor hung, and in its veil,
 With all their dreadful preparations, wrapp'd
 The Mountaineers.

—————" From below
 Meantime distinct they heard the passing tramp
 Of horse and foot, continuous as the sound
 Of Deva's stream, and barbarous tongues, commix'd
 With laughter and with frequent shouts,—for all
 Exultant came, expecting sure success;—
 Blind wretches, over whom the ruin hung!"

" From voice to voice on either side it past
 With rapid repetition. *In the name
 Of God! for Spain and vengeance!* and forthwith
 On either side along the whole defile
 The Asturians, shouting in the name of God,
 Set the whole ruin loose! huge trunks and stones,
 And loosen'd crags, down, down they roll'd, with rush,
 And bound, and thundering force. Such was the fall
 As when some city, by the laboring earth
 Heaved from its strong foundations, is cast down,
 And all its dwellings, towers, and palaces,
 In one wide desolation prostrated.
 From end to end of that long strait, the crash
 Was heard continuous, and commix'd with sounds
 More dreadful,—shrieks of horror and despair
 And death; the wild and agonizing cry
 Of that whole host in one destruction whelm'd!
 Vain was all valor there, all martial skill;
 The valiant arm is helpless now; the feet
 Swift in the race avail not now to save.
 They perish; all their thousands perish there;
 Horsemen and infantry they perish all!
 The outward armor and the bones within
 Broken, and bruised, and crush'd. Echo prolong'd
 The long uproar: a silence then ensued,
 Through which the sound of Deva's stream was heard;
 A lonely voice of waters, wild and sweet,
 The lingering groan, the faintly utter'd prayer,
 The louder curses of despairing death,
 Ascended not so high."

Southey's Roderic, xxiii. 125.

APPENDIX D. Page 137.

BERNARDO DEL CARPIO.

ALFONSO el Casto, say the romances and one or two chroniclers,* had a sister, the infanta Ximena, who listened to the passion of the count de Saldana; and who, as her brother was hostile to the match, even ventured to marry him privately. If the interviews of the lovers were secret, the consequences could not remain so; ere long the waist of the princess betrayed her situation to the incensed king, who consigned her to a nunnery and the count to a prison. The issue of this connexion, a male child, was conveyed to the Asturias, and there reared as a favorite,—most people supposing him the bastard son of king Alfonso. As he grew up, the young Bernardo excelled in every knightly exercise, and was present at many a glorious field: in time he became the most renowned hero of his age,—the terror alike of Franks and Moors.

In the mean time the unfortunate count Sancho Diaz groaned over the miseries of his close confinement, and naturally, but uselessly, indulged in apostrophes against his son (whose wonderful exploits fame bore even to his ears), against the infanta for not having procured his enlargement, and against the king for punishing his offence with such vindictive severity. But that son knew not the relation in which he stood to the recluse: like all the world besides, he regarded himself as the illegitimate issue of don Alfonso, until his nurse—another account says some courtiers—acquainted him with the fact. From that moment he resolved to labor without intermission for his father's release; but, knowing the vindictive character of Alfonso, he forbore to request it, until he should have reaped new laurels on the field; until his services should be splendid enough to wring the concession from that monarch. He had soon an opportunity of displaying his prowess with the formidable Charlemagne, whose declared intention of subjugating the whole Peninsula raised a determined spirit of resistance in every Castilian breast, save in that of Alfonso, who was willing enough to reign as the vassal of the emperor. At the famous battle of Roncevalles, he made havoc among "the knights of the Table Round;" mortally wounding, among others, the far-famed Orlando. On his return to the court of Leon, he refused to be present at the usual rejoicings consequent on a victory, until the queen promised to solicit his father's enlargement. Her request, though zealously and affectionately made, was sternly denied by Alfonso, who declared that, in conformity with an oath, he would never set the count at liberty. This repulse, however, did not prevent Bernardo from renewing the solicitation at a subsequent period; and it is impossible not to give him credit both for proper feeling and spirit. "Sir king and uncle," said he, "is it fitting that while I am fighting thy battles, my father should remain in fetters? Release him, and I shall think my services well repaid!" Wearied with his importunities, Alfonso promised that the count should be released;—and released he was, but blinded by order of the cruel tyrant.† The indignation of the son may be conceived; having bitterly upbraided the king, he left the

* The most copious of these is Rodrigo Sanchez, bishop of Palencia, in part iii. of his *Historia Hispanica* (apud Schottum, *Hispania Illustrata*, tom. i.).

† The bishop of Palencia makes the *corps* of Sancho Diaz to be delivered to the son.

court; and, like Coriolanus of old, passed over to the Moors, to employ his arm against the country which he had saved. Here history, or rather romance, leaves him.*—*Depping's Sammlung*, Nos. 9—22.

It is almost needless to say, that though this personage is admitted as historical by several writers, he is as much a creature of the imagination as Orlando or Sir Tristram. No mention is made of him until full 500 years after the time he is said to have existed. Besides, Alfonso had no sister; his historical character is opposite to that which he holds in romance; and the relation in other respects is at variance with both facts and dates.

APPENDIX E. Page 143.

VICTORY OF CLAVIJO.

"THEN the Saracens advanced in an exceeding great multitude, seeing that multitude, the army of king Ramiro betook itself to the place which is called Clavijo. And that same night the king (Ramiro) being doubtful whether he should fight, the blessed Santiago appeared to him, and comforted him, by assuring him of a certain victory over the Arabs the following day. And he arose with the break of day, and revealed what he had seen to his bishops and nobles, all whom, thanking God for the vision, and being fortified by the apostle's promise, prepared for the combat. On the other hand the Saracens, confiding in their numbers, did the same. So battle commencing on both sides, the Saracens soon were thrown into confusion, and fled from the blows of the Christians, yet near 70,000 of their number fell on that day. And in this battle, it is said, that Santiago appeared on a white horse, with a banner or ensign in his hand. Then king Ramiro took Albelda, Clavijo, Calahorra, and many other places, which he added to his kingdom. From that time this invocation is said to have been used, '*Help us, God and Santiago!*' Then also vows were made and gifts offered to Santiago; and to this day, in some places, those gifts are offered not grudgingly, or through necessity, but with a cheerful devotion."—*Rodericus Tolanus, De Rebus Hispanicis*, lib. iv. cap. 13.

The archbishop is the first historian who acquaints us with the battle of Clavijo, and consequently the first who says any thing of the miracle. The credulity with which he collected every idle legend, and received every popular ballad, is everywhere apparent. His contemporary, Lucas Tudensis, has not a word of the fable. But he is surely less censurable than Mariana, who not only receives the legend, but improves upon it. He makes the battle last two days, the first being disastrous to the Christians.

"Night arrived, and brought safety to ours; since there is nothing, however small, in war, which may not be turned to good account. Ramiro drew his troops, alike diminished in number and weakened by fear, to a neighboring hill: he then confessed himself vanquished. The place was fortified, and the wounded attended; yet such were the despair and lamentation, that all were engaged in prayer or drowned in tears. As the king was thus oppressed by grief, and anxious for the result, sleep fell upon him. As he slept, the appa-

* The bishop of Palencia sends him to the court of Charlemagne.

rition of Santiago, more majestic than any human figure, bade him be of good courage, since, with the aid of Heaven, he might indulge assured hope of victory on the following day. Cheered by these words of the apostle, and delighted by the tidings, he arose from his couch, commanding his prelates and chiefs to be summoned before him, and thus addressed them." (Here follows a long oration—more Livii—hoc est, more mendaci—in which Ramiro is made to dwell on their reverses, the hopelessness of another combat, the impossibility either of escape, or of long continuing in that place through want of provisions, and in which, after thus exposing their forlorn situation, he recalls them to joy by acquainting them with the celestial vision and promise of victory.) "Having thus spoken, he commanded the lines to be drawn out, and the trumpets to sound. With great eagerness ours rushed on the enemy, calling loudly on the name of Santiago, which, from this time forward, became the common invocation of the Spanish soldiers. The barbarians, astonished at the boldness of ours, whom they considered vanquished beyond redemption, and overcome with fear from Heaven, could not bear the onset. Santiago, as he had promised the king, was seen on a white horse, bearing aloft a white standard, on which was inscribed in red the form of a cross. The courage of ours was increased, that of the barbarians vanished, at the sight. The flight was dishonorable; not less the destruction: 60,000 Moors were slain. At this day, the bones and arms which are dug up sufficiently show us Clavijo, where the battle was fought. Albelda and Calahorra were recovered from the Moors. The battle was fought in the year 846, being the second of king Ramiro. The victorious army, in gratitude to God for the divine aid, vowed to Santiago, under whose guidance the victory had been obtained, that all Spain should thenceforth be tributary to the church of Compostella;—that though the greater part of the country was subject to the Moors, every acre of plowed and vine land should pay every year a bushel of corn or wine to that church."—*De Rebus Hispania*, lib. vii. cap. 13.

What are we to think of a writer who thus converts the modest *ferretur* of his guide Rodrigo—and he had no other—into a positive fact; who adds fable to fable, and from his own imagination alone embellishes the addition; who, in innumerable places, thus substitutes his own invention for facts?

The famous instrument recording and sanctioning this vow, called the Privilege of Santiago, bears the date of Calahorra, May 5th, era 372, or A. D. 834. This date alone would ruin the fabrication; since Ramiro did not ascend the throne before 842. But, as Ferreras well observes, its signatures and contents no less expose the imposture. There can be no doubt that the actions of the two first Ramiros have been confounded by the fabricators of the diploma. In 938, the second of that name is said—though on somewhat apocryphal authority—to have vowed, that if he should return victorious over Abderahman, each of his subjects should annually present to the church of Compostella a certain quantity of corn. That the claim was long admitted, and that the annual offering was at least partially made, is undoubted.

"That Santiago actually did expect Ramiro, is proved by a perpetual miracle. In all the vicinity of Clavijo, where the battle was fought, particularly about the town of Jubera, scallop shells are found in the stones, so exact and perfect, that art could not form a more accurate resemblance. Some say they have been there," says Brito, "since the apostle preached there in his lifetime; others refer them to the age of this battle; in either case, it is a notable testimony, and worthy of pious consideration!"—*Monarquia Lusitania*, ii. 7—20.

"The scallop was the mark of a pilgrim, who had been to Compostella, as the palm was of those who had visited the Holy Land. Palmer and pilgrim, therefore, are not precisely synonymous,—all pilgrims not being palmers. Our old poetry, when a pilgrim is introduced, shows by its costume that this was the fashionable pilgrimage."—*Southey's Notes to the Chronicle of the Cid*, p. 378.

APPENDIX F. Page 147.

COUNT FERNAN GONZALEZ.

On the eve of a great battle, the count, who was fond of hunting, followed a wild boar into the mountains. In one of these mountains was a cave, inhabited by a holy hermit, Pelayo by name, and by two other men, who, desirous of profiting by his instruction and example, abode with him. Adjoining their habitation was an humble oratory, containing an altar dedicated to St. Peter. While eagerly pursuing the animal, which seems to have disappeared miraculously in the grotto, the count unexpectedly entered. Seeing the altar, and moved with reverence to the place, he fell on his knees, and commenced his devotion. While thus occupied, the hermit appeared, courteously retained him as a guest during the night, and the following morning dismissed him, with an assurance that he would triumph over the misbelievers. The prediction was immediately verified by the event.

During a subsequent irruption of the fierce Almanzor into Castile, the count, no less solicitous about the fate of the approaching contest, hastened to the cell of his friend the hermit; but the holy man was no more. In his anxious dreams, however, he was comforted by the appearance of Pelayo, who was again the herald of victory. In the battle which followed, the martial patron of Spain was again seen on the white horse, with the banner and cross unfurled. On the site of the cell the grateful victor founded the celebrated monastery of San Pedro de Arlanza,—*Mariana*, lib. viii. cap. 6 et 7.

The defeat and imprisonment of the count by the king of Navarre have been related in the text. Romance informs us, that while he was in prison, a Norman pilgrim, arriving in Spain, heard of his situation, bribed the alcalde to admit him, and had a long conversation with the illustrious captive. On leaving the place, he proceeded to the residence of the infanta of Navarre, to acquaint her with the love which the count bore her. "May God and St. Mary forgive you, infanta!" said the messenger; "you cause the death of the best man alive! The count is dying for love of you, and unless you help him, you will be the scorn of the world; but if through you he escape, you will be queen of Castile!" The lady was surprised; but as she wanted a lover, she was no less delighted: she vowed to relieve the count, on condition he would marry her. She went to the prince, and, on receiving the pledge from his own lips, she contrived to deceive the keeper, and to effect his deliverance. Both wandered all night through an extensive forest, and at daybreak they fell in with a reverend hunter, who, seeing the count pinioned, suspected the truth, and threatened to take them both before the king, unless the lady would allow him to have his will of her. The rage of the fettered lover knew no bounds at this base proposal; but it was no less impotent; and though hers was only equalled by her grief,

the arch-priest dragged her forcibly by the arm towards another part of the forest, and laid rude hands on her. Her cries brought the count, who, though fettered, contrived to grasp a knife belonging to the hunting parson, and to plunge it into him. They now quickened their steps, and towards evening were alarmed by the appearance of many horsemen. The infanta ran to hide herself, but was soon recalled by the voice of Fernan Gonzalez, who recognized the pennon of Castile. They were his own vassals, who had left Burgos in a body, and sworn never to return without their beloved chief. Of course there were great rejoicings on both sides; and dona Sancho was rewarded for her love and service in the way she most wished to be rewarded.—*Depping, Sammlung, &c.* Nos. 24. and 25.

Some of the ballads in Depping's Collection have been translated by Mr. Lockhart, by Mr. Rodd, and by Dr. Bowring.

APPENDIX G. Page 149.

TWO NOTABLE MIRACLES.

ONE of the instances which bishop Pelayo adduces to the discredit of king Bernardo II., is too characteristic of the Castilian chroniclers to be overlooked.

Ataulfus and the Bull.

"Three servants of the church of Santiago, whose names were Jado, Cado, and Ensio, accused their lord, the bishop Ataulfus, of a serious crime. And the king, like a foolish man as he was, readily gave ear to the foul falsehood, and believed it. And he sent messengers to tell the bishop of Santiago, that after consecrating the chrisem on Palm Sunday, he (the bishop) must leave Compostella, and come to Oviedo, where the court was. In the mean time the king commanded as many fierce bulls as possible to be gathered together; and out of these he chose the fiercest, which he caused to be detained until the bishop should arrive. So the prelate, on the day appointed, came to Oviedo; and when the soldiers bid him to wait on the king before entering the church, he trusting in the Lord, replied, 'I shall first wait on our Savior, the King of kings, and afterwards visit your tyrant king.' Then he entered the church of our Savior, put on his pontifical vestments, celebrated the divine mystery, and in the same vestments went to the place before the king's palace where the bull was, and where most of the Asturians were collected to see the spectacle. Then the king commanded the bull to be let loose: immediately the animal made at the holy man; but instead of hurting him, it left its horns in his hands; and, turning round, trampled on and slew many of the scoffers: afterwards it sought the woods whence it had been brought. So the bishop returning to the church, laid the horns, which he held in his hands, on the altar of our Savior, and excommunicated Jado, Ensio, and Cado: he prayed and said that unto the world's end some of their seed should be leprous, some blind, others lame, by reason of this false crime which they had charged to him. And he cursed the king, and said, that in his seed

should the curse be made manifest to all beholders.* Then the bishop putting off his sacred robes, would not see the tyrant, though he remained there four days; and at last he left Oviedo with his servants, and went to the church of Santa Eulalia, in the vale of Pyania, where he abode. There, being struck with sickness, he took the body and blood of our Lord, and, at dawn of the fourth feria, yielded up his soul to God. Then they who were with him made a bier, on which they intended to carry him to the church where the bishop was. But our heavenly king made it so immovable, that the hands of a thousand men could not have stirred it the breadth of a hair; wherefore, after holding council, they buried him in the excellent stone sepulchre, in the sacristy of the said church of St. Eulalia, towards the north."—*España Sagrada*, tom. xiv. p. 466.

The following may also amuse:—

Mohammed and his Christian Bride.

"The said king had two lawful wives, one called Velasquita, whom he repudiated; another he married, named Gelvira, by whom he had two children, Alfonso and Theresa. This Theresa, after her father's death, her brother Alfonso gave in marriage, contrary to her will, and for the sake of peace, to a certain pagan king of Toledo. But she, being a Christian, said to the pagan king, 'Don't come near me, thou pagan king! if thou touch me, the angel of the Lord will kill thee!' But the king laughed, and had his will with her, and immediately, as she had said, he was struck by the angel of the Lord. Perceiving his death approach, he called his chamberlains and counsellors, and ordered them to load his camels with gold and silver, and precious stones and costly raiment, and take her back to Leon with all these gifts. In which city she put on the monastic habit, and afterwards died at Oviedo, and was buried in the monastery of San Pelayo."—*Ibid.* p. 468.

The ballad on this subject in Depping (*Sammlung der besten Spanischen Romanzen*, p. 57.) is more minute; but as the substance has already been given, we need not translate it:—

En los Reynos de Leon,
El quinto Alfonso reynaba
Una hermana tiene el rey,
Doña Teresa se llama.

Andalla rey de Toledo,
Por muger se la demanda;
El rey con muy mal consejo,
Lo que le pide atorgaba.

Moviose el rey á hacerlo,
Porque el Moro le ayudaba
Contra otros reyes Moros
De quien el se recelaba.

Mucho á la infanta le pesó
En se ver tan denostada
En la casar con un Moro,
Sienda ella infanta Cristiana.

* "Our armies swore terribly in Flanders!" Ernulfus and Ataulphus might have made their noviciate in an English camp.

No aprovechan con el rey
Las lagrimas que lloraba,
Ni los ruegos que le ruegan
Para revocar la manda.

El rey la envió á Toledo,
Adonde Andalla estaba :
Recibióla bien el Moro,
En la ver mucho holgaba.

Procuró de aver su amor,
Quiere gozar de la infanta ;
Ella con crecido enojo
Aquesta razon hablaba.

“ Yo te digo que ne llegues
A mi, porque soy Cristiana,
Y tu Moro, de otra ley,
De la mia muy lejana.

No quiero tu compañía,
Tu vista á mi no agradaba ;
Si pones manos en mi,
Y te di soy deshonrada :

El Angel de Jesu Christo,
A quien el me ha dada en guarda,
Herira ese tu cuerpo
Con su muy tajante espada.

No se le dió nada al Moro,
De lo que la infanta hablaba ;
Cumplió en ella su querer,
Dueña el Moro la tornaba.

Dende alli ó muy poco rato
El angel de Dios lo llaga ;
Dióle gran enfermedad,
Lobre el Moro tal gran plaga.

Cuydó el Rey ser della muerto
Y desde tal mal escapa,
Llamó á sus ricos hombres,
Con la infanta los enviaba

A Leon, dó estaba Alfonso,
Gran presente le llevaban
De oro y piedras preciosas,
Que en gran valor estimaban.

Llegados son á Leon
La infanta monja se entraba,
Dó vivió sirviendo á Dios
Honesta vida muy santa,
En aqueso monasterio,
El que las Huelgas llaman.

It is somewhat strange that Depping, who has applied himself so much to Spanish history, should make Theresa daughter, instead of sister, of Alfonso V., should marry her to Abdalla, instead of Mohammed of Toledo, and blunder the date: "*Diese infantin war doña Theresa, tochter Alphonso's V. oder des Edeln, künigs von Leon. Sie heurathete den künig von Toledo Abdalla, im anfrage des 11ten jahrhunderts, wollte ihn aber nie für ihren mann anerkennen, weil er ein Mohammedaner war, und kehrte zuletzt wieder nach Leon zurück.*" p. 58. This writer blunders everywhere: his text is full of errors of the grossest description.

APPENDIX H. Page 157.

THE CÍD RODRIGO DÍAZ DE BIVAR, SURNAMED EL CAMPEADOR.

As not merely the existence, but the chief actions, of this personage are admitted as genuine by most Spanish historians, and as, though we have excluded those actions from the text, we yet think that the reader should be acquainted with those which relate to the kings of Castile and Leon, the present note must be extended to some length. Though we believe even the historic portion of the following condensed extracts—condensed chiefly from Dr. Southey's admirable Chronicle of the Cid—to be wholly apocryphal, yet as it is admitted into the text of other histories, it shall be admitted into the appendix of this. We will endeavor to be as brief as clearness will allow.

When Ordoño II. put to death the counts of Castile,* the country remained without a governor until the people chose two judges, Nuño Rasura and Layn Calvo, the latter son-in-law to the former. From Nuño descended don Fernando, second king of Castile, son of don Sancho el Mayor; from Layn, Diego Laynez, father of our hero, who was born at Burgos, in the year 1026.

While Rodrigo was but a stripling, there was strife between his father and count don Gormaz, who on one occasion both insulted and struck Diego. The old man took the blow so much to heart, that he could not eat, or drink, or sleep. Seeing the grief he was in, young Rodrigo went out, challenged the count, who was a man of strength and valor, slew him, cut off his head, and brought it at his saddle-bow to rejoin his father. The old man was sitting at table, the food lying before him untasted, when Rodrigo returned, and pointing to the head which hung from the horse's collar, dropping blood, he bade him look up, for there was the herb which should restore him to his appetite. "The tongue," quoth he, "which insulted you is no longer a tongue, and the hand which wronged you is no longer a hand." And the old man arose, and embraced his son, and placed him above him at the table, saying that he who had brought home that head should be head of the house of Layn Calvo. Soon afterwards, as king don Fernando was at Leon, there appeared before him Ximena Gomez, daughter of the deceased count. Falling down on her knees, she craved a boon from him,—not the death but the hand of Rodrigo. The extraordinary request was granted, and Rodrigo, at the monarch's command, readily hastened to the court, and made her his bride. But on returning with her to his mother's house (Layn Calvo was no more), he made a vow in her hands that he would know her not until he had won five battles in the field.

* See section ii. chapter i. page 142, of the present volume.

Just before this marriage, Rodrigo had repulsed a strong predatory irruption of the Moors, and taken the five kings who headed it prisoners! His next feat was to fight the champion of don Ramiro, king of Aragon, in right of his own lord, king don Fernando, for the city of Calahorra, a great subject of dispute between the two crowns, but one which both agreed to settle by their champions. Having paid a visit to the shrine at Compostella, and on the way shown great kindness to a poor lothesome leper, who proved to be no other than St. Lazarus, and who, in recompense, assured him of celestial favor in all his undertakings, he returned, and did battle with the Aragonese, whom he slew, and thereby gained Calahorra for Fernando. This exploit was followed by many successive triumphs over the Moors, both in Castile and Portugal, helping his master to win Viseu, Lamego, and Coimbra. On the taking of the last place, he was knighted by the king, and thenceforth called Ruy Diaz (*Ruy* is an abbreviation of Rodrigo); but a more honorable appellation was also his, that of *Cid* or lord, which was bestowed on him by the five Moorish kings, his vassals, and which king Fernando confirmed.

But it was not in the field only that the *Cid*—for such he must henceforth be called—was of use to his sovereign. When Henry, emperor of Germany, and pope Victor II. called on Fernando to do homage for Leon and Castile to that emperor, in fear of the claimant's power, the counsellors of Fernando advised him to submit: not so the *Cid*, who indignantly denounced the arrogance of Henry, and persuaded his master to send a defiance to both pope and emperor, and even to carry the war into their dominions. Accordingly, at the head of 8900 knights, the king and *Cid* set out for Germany. Near Toulouse, the *Cid*, who had the advanced guard, discomfited count Raymond, lord of Savoy, who, at the head of the power of France, comprising no fewer than 20,000 knights, endeavored to obstruct the march of the Castilians. In a second conflict he was no less successful; so that the fame of his exploits terrified both pope and emperor, and induced both to withdraw their arrogant pretensions over the country.

On the death of Fernando, his dominions were divided among his children. Sancho, the eldest, had Castile; Alfonso had Leon and the Asturias; and Garcia had Galicia with northern Portugal; Urraca had Zamora, with half the Infantazgo; Elvira the other half, with Toro. Such a division could not fail to cause misfortunes and troubles. First, Sancho of Navarre, aided by his uncle Ramiro of Aragon, invaded Castile, expecting that, in the weakness consequent on such a division, he should recover what his father had lost; but he was so roughly handled by the *Cid*, that he was glad to retreat into his own kingdom. To punish the king of Aragon for the aid thus lent to the Navarrese, Sancho laid siege to Saragossa, then held by a Moorish king, vassal of Ramiro, and forced both the Mussulman and city to transfer their homage and tribute to himself as their liege lord. In great wrath Ramiro with his army waited the return of the Castilians to give them battle: the Aragonese were defeated, and forced to agree that Saragossa should remain tributary to Sancho.

But the worst effects of the division of Fernando's dominions were to be feared in the quarrels of his children. While Sancho was absent from Castile, Garcia seized by force on most of the lands held by Urraca. Sancho, as the eldest, had naturally been most opposed to the division; and when he heard of the usurpation of Garcia he rejoiced, for it afforded him, what he had long wanted, a pretext for interfering, and for dispossessing the co-heirs. In vain did the *Cid*, who was loy-

alty itself, dissuade him against the undertaking. Having obtained permission from his brother Alfonso to march his troops through Leon, he invaded Galicia and Portugal; but though he met at first with little opposition, he was at length defeated in the vicinity of Coimbra. But, his troops being still superior in number, he persevered, and won much of the country, and marched on Santaren to besiege his brother. But Garcia, seeing that he must make another effort to preserve what he had left, did not wait to be besieged, but ventured out, and accepted battle. After a sharp conflict the Castilians were routed—doubtless because the Cid had not come up—and Sancho taken prisoner. Seeing his brother in the charge of six knights, Garcia pursued the fugitives; but in his absence Sancho was rescued, and by the arrival of the Cid with 300 knights enabled again to contest the battle. "In happy time are you come, my fortunate Cid," said the rescued king, "never vassal succored his lord in such season as you now succor me, for the king my brother had overcome me." To which the Cid answered, "Sir, be sure that you shall recover the day, or I will die!" And well did he redeem his pledge; for in the battle which ensued, victory declared for the Castilians: Garcia was taken prisoner in his turn, and consigned to the strong castle of Luna, where he was kept till the day of his death,—a period of seventeen years.*

No sooner had Sancho thus obtained possession of his brother, than that of the kingdom followed. Strengthened by the accession of Galicia and Portugal, he imperiously ordered Alfonso to resign Leon to him: Alfonso naturally resisted, Leon was invaded, Alfonso defeated—chiefly through the prowess of my Cid—and forced to flee. In a second battle, however, my Cid not being on the field, the Leonese were victorious, and Sancho fled. At this critical moment Ruy Diaz came up with his green pennon, prevailed on his king to turn back and rally the scattered Castilians, and try the event of a second battle. It was not tried, however, until the following day, when of course the Castilians were victorious. Alfonso fled, but yet a party of thirteen Leonese knights made Sancho prisoner, and led him away. My Cid pursued them alone, and without lance; and when he overtook them he said—"Knights, give me my lord, and I will give unto you yours." They knew him by his arms, and they made him answer,—"*Ruy Diaz, return in peace, and seek not to contend with us, otherwise we will carry you away prisoner with him!*" And he waxed wroth, and said, "Give me but a lance, and I will, single as I am, rescue my lord from all of ye; by God's help I will do it!" And they held him as nothing, because he was but one, and gave him a lance. But he attacked them therewith so bravely, that he slew eleven of the thirteen,† leaving only two alive on whom he had mercy, and thus did he rescue the king. The prisoner Alfonso was made a monk, "more by force than good will," for he soon fled from the monastery to the court of Alimamon, king of Toledo, by whom he was generously entertained.

Sancho was now acknowledged king of Leon, as well as of Castile and Galicia. Urraca began to fear, and not without reason, that her city of Zamora would next be assailed; for the king, after taking Toro, and all the possessions of Elvira, her sister, advanced against that city. As it was strongly fortified, and likely to stand out a long time, the Cid

* He lived, and insisted on dying, in his fetters. His request of being buried with them was also granted. *Alonso el Sabio. Sandoval Rodrigo of Toledo.*

† See Falstaff.

was with difficulty induced to wait on the infanta, and propose that if she would surrender Zamora, she should receive other possessions in exchange; he loved Urraca, with whom he had passed many years of his youth in that very city, and he did not wish to see her despoiled of her inheritance. Both the princess and the inhabitants refused to surrender the place. For his ill success in this message, or because he refused, perhaps, to bear arms against the infanta, he fell into disgrace with Sancho, who ordered him to leave Castile. So he left the camp of his lord, accompanied by his knights and esquires, his kinsmen and friends, amounting to 1200 in number, "all men of approved worth, a goodly company," with the intention of joining Alfonso among the Moors; but the repentance and submission of the king, who dispatched messengers after him, desiring him to return, disarmed his anger, and he did return. Still he refused to bear arms in person against doña Urraca, "because of the days which were past." The siege, however, was prosecuted with such vigor, and famine so well aided the assailants, that the princess and inhabitants resolved to surrender the city, to leave it, and join Alfonso. Just as this resolution was made, one Vellido Dolfos, a knight of her party, proposed, if well rewarded, to make king don Sancho raise the siege. On being assured that if he succeeded whatever demand he made should be granted, he fled from the city, accompanied by his thirty knights, as if in a great panic, and persuaded Sancho that his life was in danger merely because he had exhorted the inhabitants to submit. The king believed him, especially when assured that the besiegers should be put in possession of a secret postern leading into the place. Not even the honest warning of the citizens, who knew the traitor's purpose, could shake Sancho's confidence in his new vassal. The result was as they had foreseen; Vellido Dolfos had soon an opportunity of assassinating him, by thrusting a hunting-spear through his back. The murderer fled into the city, and sought the protection of Urraca. He was openly ironed and imprisoned, but secretly suffered to escape.*

By the death of Sancho without issue, Alfonso was rightful king of Leon and Castile. With some difficulty he obtained permission to leave Toledo, and hastened to Zamora, where all the barons offered to do him homage on condition of his swearing that he had no hand in the death of his brother; for suspicion naturally fell on Urraca, and the zeal she showed in his restoration as naturally implicated him. Agreeably to the custom of the times, not only he but twelve others (knights) had to swear with himself he was free of his brother's blood. The Cid administered the oath, and in so earnest and particular a manner, that the king, whose countenance changed more than once, was incensed with him, so that "from that day forward there was no love towards my Cid in the heart of the king." But some time elapsed before the latter exhibited any outward signs of displeasure. In the expedition to aid the king of Toledo, who was besieged by the king of Cordova, the Cid accompanied his master, and on a following occasion he was dispatched for the tribute due from the Moorish kings of Seville and Cordova, when in a pitched battle he defeated the king of Granada, Al-

* His fate is unknown. One account, evidently fabulous, intimates that the demand he had made the princess was to lie with her one night, and that she kept her promise by tying him hands and feet in a sack, and thus passing the night with him. But whatever was his fate here, says the Chronicle of the Cid, there can be no doubt he is in hell, tormented with Dathan and Abiram, and Judas the traitor, for ever and ever.

mudafar, who had invaded the dominions of Almutamir king of Seville. For his splendid services he received the thanks, but could never obtain the favor of Alfonso: many of the courtiers too were jealous of his fame, and still more of the riches he daily acquired, and they sought an opportunity of injuring him in the mind of the king. It soon arrived: he having made a predatory inroad into the king of Toledo's dominions, the Moor complained, and Rodrigo was banished. His faithful followers, however, agreed to accompany him wherever he should bend his steps.

There is great beauty in that passage of the Chronicle of the Cid where he prepares to leave his ancient habitation. "And as he was about to depart, he looked back upon his own home, and when he saw his hall deserted, the household chests unfastened, the doors open, no cloaks hanging up, no seats in the porch, no hawks upon the perches the tears came into his eyes, and he said, 'My enemies have done this—God be praised for all things!'" So he and his cavalcade left Bivar, and proceeded to Burgos, the men and women of which were at the windows weeping to see him pass; but none in Burgos durst receive him into their houses from fear of king Alfonso, so he took up his lodgings on the sands near the city.* To raise money, he had recourse to an expedient which would have done honor to a modern sharper: he caused two chests to be filled with sand, and to be pledged, as real gold, with two Jews, for 600 marks. The Jews were not to open the chests until a certain period expired. The Cid now pursued his journey, chuckling over his good fortune in cheating them. Having seen his wife and daughters safely consigned to the care of the abbot of San Pedro de Cardena, and asked our Lady's blessing on all his measures, he "loosed the reins, and pushed forward," until he arrived in the country of the Moors.

The life of the Cid was now one of continued warfare, which he made on his own account with as much impunity as a sovereign prince, "like men who lived by it, and helped themselves with their arms." Castrejon and Alcocer were the first places which he won. In the latter he was soon besieged by the troops of the king of Valencia, who cut off his water and provisions. Safety lay only in the sword; so that, notwithstanding the disproportion of number, he and his followers issued from the gates, and the affray began. Thus 300 assailed 3000, their leader crying out, "Smite them, knights, for the love of charity!" And smite them the Christians did, until 1300 of the misbelievers were extended on the plain; and the rest, except the prisoners, fled in terror. Of the spoil, which was immense, he sent a portion to king Alfonso, in token alike of love and vassalage; for, in all circumstances, he was the most loyal of men. Having exacted redemption money from the neighboring towns, he proceeded onwards, reducing several others, such as Medina, and Daroca, and Teruel, to the condition of tributaries; and at last forcing even the Moors of Saragossa to pay tribute also. All this, with only 300 followers, did "my Cid with the fleecy beard," and when reinforced, as he soon was, with 200 horse, and a good body of infantry, he thought himself a match for any one. His freebooting inroads into the neighboring provinces offended both Christian and Moor; both don Pedro king of Aragon, and Raymond count

* These, and many other particulars, are affectingly related in the oldest and best poem in the Spanish language—the Poema del Cid, published by Sanchez, in the *Collecion de Poesias Castellanas anteriores al Siglo xv* tom. i.

of Barcelona, were wroth with him—and not without reason, for he sometimes showed no more respect to their territories than to those of the Moors. The latter, with a Moorish ally, the king of Denia, took the field against him, but lost the battle and liberty. The count, however, was honorably dismissed, without ransom; a behavior which surprised him much. "As he pricked on, he many times looked behind him, fearing that my Cid would repent what he had done, and take him back to prison, which the perfect one would not have done for the whole world, for never did he do disloyal thing. This count Raymond, and many other Christian lords, with their allies, the Moors, were soon afterwards defeated a second time by the Cid. But what pleased the victor most, was the service which he did for his sovereign don Alfonso on the Moorish garrison of Rueda, which had treacherously slain some noble Castilians, and even the infante Sancho, son of the king of Navarre. On this occasion, Alfonso thanked him in person, restored him to favor, and pressed him even to return to Castile; an invitation which he joyfully accepted.

In the siege of Toledo, which king Alfonso at length took, the Cid had the chief command of the Christian troops: his was the first banner which entered, and he was the first Christian alcalde of the place. But he seems never to have been on cordial terms with his master, but to have shunned the court, and returned to his old habits of making war on any body or every body, on the frontiers of Aragon and Valencia. Yahia, king of the last-named city, he made tributary to him, like the Moorish king of Saragossa. When Raymond Berenguer, count of Barcelona, the Cid's old acquaintance, was placed over the Castilian troops, and lay before Valencia, the latter took so much umbrage at it, that he ordered him to leave the field, and return home. The count reluctantly obeyed, but in his mortified pride, he looked out for revenge; and, with an overwhelming force of French, Castilians, and Moors, fell on the hero in the mountains. "In the end, he who was never conquered won the day." This battle, however, is evidently but a second relation of the former one, and the result the same. The Cid waxed greater and greater; was obeyed by other Moorish chiefs, the governors, or rather kings, of Tortosa, Denia, and Xativa; and was, in fact, the protector of the whole country, from Tortosa to Orihuela. "And, you are to know, that whatever my Cid commanded in Valencia, it was done; and whatever he forbade was forbidden." But his happiness was alloyed by Alfonso, whom the courtiers generally contrived to indispose against him, by misrepresenting his most innocent actions. At one time, the king went so far as to order the Cid's vassals to pay him, for five years, the tribute due to "him of the fleecy beard." Flesh and blood could not stand to be thus dishonored; so "fleecy beard" made a hostile irruption into Castile itself, took Logroño and Alfaro, plundering and destroying in every direction. "Now when king Alfonso knew what the Cid had done in his land, and that the Ricoshomes had not dared fight against him, he saw that he had taken an evil counsel when he had set his heart against him. And he sent his letters to the Cid, saying that he forgave him all that he had done, seeing that he himself had given the occasion; and he besought him to come to Castile, where he should find all things free which appertained unto him. Much was the Cid rejoiced at these tidings; and he wrote unto the king, thanking him for his grace, and beseeching him not to give ear to bad counsellors, for he would always be at his service."

While the Cid was at Saragossa, the inhabitants of Valencia, indignant at the tribute which they were obliged to pay him, and which

appears to have been somewhat harshly exacted by his guazil or agent Abenalfarax, who constantly resided in the city, conspired with an alcalde called Abeniaf how they might get rid of it. The vicinity of the Almoravides, who were gradually subduing the petty kings of Andalusia, encouraged them to make the attempt: if they must pay tribute, they would rather pay it to one of their own law, than to a Christian. Having received promise of aid from the African general, they arose, deposed Yahia, the vassal of the Christians, and placed Abeniaf at their head. The new ruler put the dethroned king to death, and prepared to defend the city against all comers,—against the Africans as well as the Christians; for he knew that if the former gained it, his reign was over. In great wrath the Cid invested the city, destroyed the suburbs except one quarter, in which he intrenched himself. The siege continued for months, even after provisions began to fail the besieged, and an ineffectual attempt of the Almoravides to succor their brethren. In the sorties made by the garrison, the Cid of course was victorious: but the women and children fought from the walls, by rolling stones on the heads of the assailants. At length, when the inhabitants, through fatigue and starvation, were more dead than alive, necessity made them capitulate, and the Cid's followers took triumphant possession of the city in June, 1093, after a siege of nine months. Thus he established himself in his new and most important of his conquests; uniting, in his own person, the functions of governor and judge; but in both characters he exhibited sometimes rapacity, and frequently duplicity, always tyranny; so as now to terrify, now to exasperate, the Moors. His sway, indeed, seems to have been a rigorous one, notwithstanding the even-handed justice which he knew how to administer when his own interests were not concerned.

But the victor was not to remain unmolested in his post: the Almoravides, 30,000 in number, invested him there. Without counting the enemy, he issued from the gates, gave them battle, drove them from the field, pursued them as far as the Xucar, "smiting and slaying all the way." In attempting to escape him, 15,000 of the misbelievers were drowned in that river. "Be it known that this was a profitable day's work. Every foot-soldier shared a hundred marks of silver that day; and the Cid returned full honorably to Valencia. Great was the joy of the Christians in the Cid Ruy Diaz, he who was born in a happy hour. His beard was grown and continued to grow a great length. My Cid said of his chin, "For the love of king don Alfonso, who hath banished me from his land, no scissors shall come upon it, nor shall a hair be cut away, and Moors and Christians shall talk of it." His followers were become so rich, that, in the well-founded fear of their returning to their homes, he made a law that whoever left without his permission, should lose both substance and life. To know how many he had, he caused an account to be made, "and there were found 1000 knights of lineage, and 550 other horsemen; and of foot-soldiers 4000, besides boys and others. Thus many were the people of my Cid, he of Bivar. And his heart rejoiced, and he smiled, and said, 'Thanks be to God, and to Holy Mother Mary! We had a smaller company when we left the house of Bivar!'" He now appointed a bishop for Valencia, "one Hieronymo, a full learned man and a wise, and one who was mighty both on horseback and afoot,"—the best qualification for my Cid's bishop. Nine parish churches were next founded. Lastly, he thought of his family and country: so he sent messengers to do homage to king don Alfonso for Valencia and for doña Ximena and his two daughters, whom he settled in his household in great honor.

The following year the Cid was invested in Valencia by "king Yusef, son of the Miramamolín, who dwelt in Morocco," at the head of 50,000 Almoravides. The ladies lately arrived, were in great fear for the result—"never had they been in such fear since the day they were born. Then the good Cid Campeador stroked his beard, and said, 'Fear not; all this is for your good.'" On the morning of the battle, all being "shriven and assailed and houselled," prepared for the contest—of 4000 with 50,000. "Great was the absolution which the bishop gave them: 'He who shall die,' said he, 'fighting full forward, I will take his sins, and God shall have his soul!'" Then said he, 'A boon, Cid don Rodrigo: I have sung mass to you this morning; let me have the giving the first wounds in this battle!' and the Cid granted him his boon in the name of God." Of course, he who was never conquered, was victor here; so that only 15,000 of the misbelieving 50,000 escaped. "The bishop don Hieronymo, that perfect one with the shaven crown, he had his fill in that battle, fighting with both hands; no one could tell how many he slew." It was here that, besides immense spoil, the Cid acquired Yusef's sword, the famous Tizona, and the owner himself, sorely wounded, was glad to escape.

The marriage of the Cid's two daughters with the infantes of Carrion, the dishonor put on him and them by these sons-in-law, the dissolution of that marriage, and the contracting of a new one with the infantes of Aragon and Navarre, the revenge of the Cid for the dishonor put on him and his house by those of Carrion, being matters foreign to history, may be passed over in silence. He had soon other employment than giving marriage feasts: Bucar, brother of the defeated Yusef, to revenge that humiliating check, raised an army not to be computed for number, in which twenty-nine kings served as generals; and with this mighty host landed in Spain, and made direct for Valencia. But he of the fleecy beard, was not dismayed: he wished that, instead of only twenty-nine kings, Bucar had brought all Pagandom; for he thought that, with the mercy of God, he could conquer them all. So "the Cid set his army in array. The van he gave to Avar Fañez Minaya, and to Pero Bermudez, who bore his banner; and he gave them 500 horsemen and 1500 men on foot. In the right wing, was that honorable one with the shaven crown, don Hieronymo the bishop, with the like number both of horse and foot; and in the left, Martin Antolinez of Burgos, and Alvar Salvadores, with as many more. The Cid came in the rear with 1000 horsemen, all in coats of mail, and 2,500 men on foot." The bishop, who "had left his own country through the desire he had to kill some Moors and do honor to his order," insisted on being "the foremost in the business." So the affray commenced: "the bishop don Hieronymo, he pricked forward; two Moors he slew with the two first thrusts of his lance; the haft broke, and he laid on his sword. God! how well the bishop fought! two he slew with the lance, and five with the sword." This was only the beginning; for, throughout the contest, equal prodigies were constantly performed. At length the Moors fled, as usual; the Cid pursued king Bucar, "and made at him to strike him with his sword: and the Moorish king knew him when he saw him coming. 'Turn this way, Bucar,' cried the Campeador, 'you who come from behind sea to see the Cid with the long beard! We must greet each other and cut out a friendship!' 'God confound such friendship!' cried king Bucar, and turned his bridle, and began to fly towards the sea, and the Cid after him, having great desire to reach him. But king Bucar had a good horse and a fresh, and the Cid went spurring Baviaca, who had had hard work that day, and he came near

his back; and when they were nigh unto the ships, and the Cid saw he could not reach him, he darted his sword at him, and struck him between the shoulders: and king Bucar, being badly wounded, rode into the sea, and got to a boat, and the Cid alighted and picked up his sword. And his people came up, hewing down the Moors before them, and the Moors in their fear of death ran into the sea, so that twice as many died in the water as in the battle; nevertheless, so many were they that were slain in the battle, that they were thought to be 17,000 persons and upward. And so many were they who were taken prisoners, that it was a wonder; and of the twenty and nine kings who came with Bucar, seventeen were slain."

This was the last battle which the Cid fought with his old enemies during life: but his corpse was present at one which exceeded all his former victories.* Hearing that king Bucar was coming with a new army too numerous to be counted, with thirty-six kings as generals, and being moreover informed in a vision by St. Peter that he should die before they arrived, he left his instructions with his confidential friends. He ordered them to scent and embalm his body after death, to carry him in complete armor with sword in hand, to fasten him on the back of his noble steed Baviaca, to open the gates of the city, and advance in battle array against the Moors, as in former times; and when the victory was theirs, as he assured them it would be, to convey him to the church of San Pedro de Cardena, which he had chosen as for his place of sepulchre. The following day, May 29. 1099, in the 73d year of his age, "this noble baron yielded up his soul, which was pure and without spot, to God." Three days after his death, the Moors came up to the city, while the inhabitants contented themselves with defending the place from the ramparts during twelve days. Before morning of the thirteenth, the Christian army issued from the gates, the Cid appearing armed and on horseback as if alive, and there was a terrible carnage among the Moors, who soon fled in every direction. The corpse, however, was not much present on this occasion: it was conveyed towards Castile while the destruction of the misbelievers was effected. Of that destruction, the chief instrument was believed to be that great apostle Sir Santiago, whom the victims thought they perceived in the van of the faithful. After the battle, the deceased baron's followers returned not to the city, for they well knew that they should be unable to defend it, but to Castile, each to his own home. The Moors in the suburbs again took possession of Valencia, which continued theirs until it was won by king don Jayme of Aragon, surnamed El Conquistador.

* He also fought after death.—"Moreover when the Miramamolin brought over from Africa against don Alfonso VIII., the mightiest power of the misbelievers that had ever been brought against Spain since the destruction of the kings of the Goths, the Cid Campeador remembered his country in that great danger. For the night before the battle was fought at the Navas de Tolosa, in the dead of the night, a mighty sound was heard in the whole city of Leon, as if it were the tramp of a great army passing through. And it passed on to the royal monastery of San Isidro, and there was a great smashing at the gate thereof, and they called to a priest who was keeping vigils in the church, and told him, that the captains of the army whom he heard were the Cid Ruy Diaz and count Fernan Gonzalez, and that they came there to call up king don Fernando the Great, who lay buried in that church, that he might go with them to deliver Spain; and on the morrow that great battle of the Navas de Tolosa was fought, wherein 60,000 of the misbelievers were slain; which was one of the greatest and noblest battles ever won over the Moors."—*Chronicle of the Cid*, p. 352.

How the corpse of the Cid was not buried, but clothed in noble apparel, and placed upright in an ivory chair by the side of the high altar of San Pedro de Cardena;—how it remained in that position above ten years, the flesh continuing fair and sound all that time, when it was buried in a vault at the foot of the altar;—how, before it was thus interred, a graceless Jew, intending to pull the dead hero's beard, stretched out his hand for that purpose; and how the right hand of the corpse miraculously drew the sword Tizona half-way from the scabbard, to the dread of the profane Israelite, who was thereby converted to the true faith; with many other wonderful things,—which, as they relate not to history, must not be noticed here;—may be found in the Chronicle of the Cid, and in the popular ballads concerning him.

Such are the chief events—usually received as historic, and, in fact, mostly incorporated in the modern histories of Spain—recorded of this famous personage. The degree of credit to which they are entitled might safely be left to the reader's judgment; the impossibility of some, the improbability of most, and the air of romance thrown over the rest, must be sufficient to insure the rejection of all, in a mind unbiassed by prepossessions. How such events should ever have been received otherwise than as creations of the prolific muse of chivalry and romance, is, to us at least, matter of the deepest astonishment: but we will not base their rejection merely on their general improbability; we will proceed to adduce other and no less reasonable grounds for the same purpose.

Even if the events recorded of the Cid were not anywhere—as they everywhere are—at variance with reason and probability, the historian would object to the *authority* on which they rest. We have—

1. The *Cronica de España*, the greater part of which is supposed to have been written by Alonso el Sabio, but not the last part, in which the adventures of the Cid are contained. Valladolid, 1604.*

2. *Chronica del Famoso Cavallero Cid Ruy Diaz el Campeador*. Burgos, 593.

3. *Poema del Cid* (in Sanchez's collection).

4. *Romances del Cid*, by Escobar. Seville, 1632.

5. *La Castilla y el mas Famoso Castellano*; edited by Risco, Madrid, 1792, with some others, which, as they are confessedly apocryphal, need not be noticed.

"The first of these works," says Risco,† one of the stoutest defendants of the existence and actions of the Cid, "whoever was the author, is a prodigious collection of fabulous adventures, of popular songs and tales." Besides, its age—it is not older than the fourteenth century—must render it useless as authority for the actions of one reputed to have lived in the eleventh. The second, which was published by the abbot of San Pedro de Cardena, don Juan de Velorado, is, doubtless, taken from the first, and therefore liable to the same objections: both, says Risco, "are justly held in no repute."‡ The third, which is to be found in Sanchez (*Collecion de Poesias Castellanos anteriores al Siglo*

* There are other editions of these works, but we notice such only as we have consulted.

† "La primera, sea quien fuera su verdadero autor, . . . es una prodigiosa colleccion de fabulosas aventuras, y de cantares y consejas populares."—*La Castilla*, &c. p. 60.

‡ "La segunda es posterior á la general, y de esta se sacaron los capitulos relativos al Cid."—"Una y otra justamente reprobadas."—*La Castilla*, &c. p. 64.

XV. tom. i.), is certainly not older than the thirteenth, though attempts have been made to prove it much older: the argument adduced by the supporters of this opinion, that the language of the poem proves it to be of more ancient date, can weigh nothing, when we find names, full as critical, denying the inference, and contending that, at the very earliest, it cannot be assigned to a period prior to the commencement of the thirteenth century. The *Romances del Cid*, in their present form, are acknowledged to be of the fifteenth century; nor do we know whether the language has been modernized. "Many of them," says an excellent judge,* "are evidently little older than the volumes in which they are contained; very few of them appear to me to bear any marks of antiquity, and the greater part are utterly worthless." The best of these works is that which is least known in this country,—which has escaped the diligence of Dr. Southey; and on which the advocates for the existence and actions of the Cid place the most reliance. The MS. which was found by Risco in the city of Leon, and published by him under the above quaint title, is said by the editor to be of great antiquity,—almost as old as the days of the Cid;—but as it is not to be found in any library in Spain,† we have only his judgment to guide us,—a guide which appears to be any thing but unerring. Until that MS. is produced, and submitted to the rigorous examination of literary antiquaries; if its date be no older than the thirteenth century—and we have no presumption that it is even so old; if it do not approach much nearer to the period of the Cid than either the poem or the chronicles, it cannot, in any sense of the word, be received as authority. All that need be observed here concerning it is, that in some points it differs from the other authorities previously named; but in none does that difference add to the probability of its genuineness, or appear likely to remove the scepticism of such as doubt of the existence and actions of this far-famed Castilian chief.

By no writer, prior to the thirteenth century, is Rodrigo de Bivar so much as named; and the slight mention made of him even in those of that period, are poor foundations for the amazing superstructure of fable which has been raised upon it. Let us hear all that the ancient chronicles, &c. say of this reputed baron and hero:—

1. "Æra 1137. (A. D. 1099.) obiit Rodericus Campidoctor."—*Chron. Burgense*, p. 309., which ends A. D. 1212.

2. "Æra 1084. (A. D. 1046.) Rodericus Comes." "Æra 1137. (A. D. 1099.) Rodericus Campidoctor."—*Annales Compost.*, which end in 1248.

3. "Priso Mio Cit Valencia, æra 1132." (A. D. 1094.) "Murio Mio Cid el Campiador en Valencia, æra 1137." (A. D. 1099.)—*Anales Toledanos*, i. p. 386., which come down to 1219, but seem to have been written at a subsequent period.

4. "Erat autem cum rege Sancio miles strenuus, dictus Rodericus Didaci Campiator. Hic regem devictum animans persuasit, ut quoad posset fugientem exercitum revocaret, et in aurora Legionensibus et Gallecis improvidis adveniret."—*Rodericus Toletanus*, lib. vi. cap. 16., who ended in 1243.

"Verum Rodericus Didaci Campiator, zelo Domini interfecti eum (the assassin of Sancho before Zamora), sine mora, et fere in ipsa urbis janua interfecit, sed velocitatem Bellidii non potuit prævenire."—*Ibid.* cap. 19.

* Southey's Preface to the Chronicle of the Cid.

† The reader may see some curious remarks on this MS. in Masdeu, *Historia Critica*, tom. xx.

"Sed cum nemo vellet ab eo recipere juramentum (that he, Alfonso, had in no degree been concerned in Sancho's death), ad recipiendum se obtulit solus Rodericus Didaci Campiator. Unde et postea, licet strenuus, non fuit in ejus oculis gratus."—*Ibid.* cap. 21.

"In diebus ejus (Alfonso) Rodericus Didaci Campiator, qui ex causa quam diximus, non erat in ejus oculis gratus, conferta manu consanguineorum et militum aliorum, proposuit per se Arabes infestare. Cumque versus frontariam Aragoniæ pervenisset, congressus eum rege Petro Aragoniæ obtinuit contra eum, et etiam vivum cepit sed continuo manumisit. Et inde procedens, pervenit Valentiam, et obsedit. Cumque ad succursum Valentini Buchar rex Arabum cum exercitu advenisset, initio certamine obtinuit Rodericus, et Buchar fugit vix vitæ relictus, cæsa tamen ex suis multitudine infinita. Et incontinenti civitas se reddidit Roderico, et eam habuit quoad vixit," &c. *Ibid.* cap. 29.

5. Lucas Tudensis, who finished his history in 1236, with even greater brevity alludes to the advice of the Cid on Sancho's defeat, and to his conduct after that prince's assassination before Zamora.

Such is all that is to be found in the ancient chroniclers prior to Alonso el Sabio, and even that is mostly contradicted by authentic history. No Pedro king of Aragon was overcome by any Castilian general of those times; and Valencia was never in possession of the Christians until the reign of don Jayme el Conquistador. Equally opposed to true history is most of what is to be found in the Chronicles of the Cid, which so confounds events and times, as to be utterly worthless as a guide. That personage undertook no expedition into Andalusia; there was never any Almudafar king of Granada, nor Almutamir of Seville. Again, don Garcia of Galicia was not imprisoned by Sancho of Castile, but by Alfonso of Leon. Even the genealogy, education, and marriage of the Cid can be proved to be as fabulous. Who was Layn Calvi, his fifth ancestor? According to Sampiro bishop of Astorga, a contemporary, Fernan Gonzalez was count of Castile in 932, and in 912 was known as the son of Gonsalo: how, then, as Risco's pretended history assures us, and as appears even from the Chronicle, could Nuño Rasuera, the father of Gonsalo, and the grandfather of Fernan Gonzalez, be proclaimed judge in 924? Again, Risco's history—and the circumstance is confirmed by the Chronicle—makes the Cid to have been educated at the court of don Sancho: now, if the Cid was born in 1026, he must have been near forty years of age when that prince, who reigned only seven years,—from 1065 to 1072,—ascended the throne. Risco's pretended authority marries this personage to one Eximena, daughter of count Didacus of Oviedo, and niece of Alfonso. Would the king, who hated him, says don Lucas, have given him a niece? In another account, his wife is said to have been the daughter of one Diego de Asturias. Equally contradictory is the date of this union, which is placed in the reigns of Fernando, Sancho, and Alfonso. In short, there is little but contradiction in all that is related of this far-famed hero,—little that is not opposed to authentic history.

If Rodrigo of Bivar performed such wonderful feats, if his existence attracted any notice, would contemporary writers, the monk of Silos, and Pelayo of Oviedo, of whom neither can be charged with a barren brevity, conceal his very name? This consideration alone is fatal to his historic fame,—perhaps even to his existence. Of that existence we have no proof: it is not mentioned prior to the thirteenth century; and there is reason to believe that it was derived from the popular ballads of the times. Yet we would not positively deny the existence, however we may despise the fabulous deeds, of Rodrigo: there may have

appeared in Castile some petty chief who obtained considerable local celebrity by his inroads among the Mohammedans; and who, therefore, like the subjects of our own ballads, may have been long commemorated in song. The most probable hypothesis, however, is, that there were several warriors of the name, and that the deeds of all, multiplied and exaggerated even in this case, have been ascribed to one only.

But if the Chronicle of the Cid, and the other accounts of his life and actions, must thus be rejected as historic authorities, they will always be esteemed as containing faithful representations of popular opinions and manners,—a subject of interest to every reflecting mind. Hence the Chronicle of the Cid, the Life and Death of King Arthur, Amadis de Gaul, and other works of the kind, ought never to fall into oblivion: he who first rescued them from the dust of libraries conferred a real obligation on the reading public. To the learned and eloquent translator or editor of these three works is the public of England equally indebted,

APPENDIX I. Page 184.

ALFONSO'S PUNISHMENT.

THE following curious account of Alfonso's punishment for his alleged blasphemy has never been noticed by any writer in this country. It is a translation of an extract made by Orúz (*Compendio Chronologica de la Historia de España*, tom. iv. p. 184. Madrid, 1797), from a MS. in the Royal Library of Madrid:—

"On Saturday, April 2. era 1332 (A. D. 1294), king don Alfonso having heard mass at the hour of tierce in the city of Seville, entered into his chamber, as he had long been wont, to pray before an image of St. Mary; and while he was praying, a sudden shining light filled the room, like unto the light of fire; and in this light appeared an angel's face, exceedingly beautiful. And when the king saw it, he was much afraid, and he said, 'I conjure thee, in the name of our Lord Jesus Christ, to tell me what thou art,—whether thou art a good or evil spirit!' And the angel answered 'Fear not; a messenger am I unto thee, as thou wilt soon perceive. Well, thou knowest how, on such a day, being at table in this city, thou didst blaspheme, and say, that if thou hadst been with God the Father when he made the world and all things in it, thou couldst have mended many of them; and that many others would have been done which were not done. And God the Father was much offended with thy saying (supposing it possible for Him to be offended), and he was very wroth with thee; wherefore the Highest gave sentence against thee, to the effect that, since thou didst despise Him who made thee and gave thee honor among men, so shouldst thou be despised by thine own offspring, and shouldst be degraded from thine high estate, and in lowliness end thy days! Which sentence was revealed to an Augustine friar, while in his cell at Molina studying a sermon that he was to preach the following day. This friar told it in confession to his superior, and the superior to the infante don Manuel, who loves thee like his own soul. And in a week don Manuel came to this city of Seville, and said to thee, 'Tell me, I pray thee, whether thou didst ever speak so and so?' and thou repliedst, 'that

thou didst speak thus, and wouldst speak so again." Wherefore don Manuel was sore grieved, and exhorted thee to amend, and ask pardon of God; yet thou heardest him not. And for that thou mayest know how all power is from God the Father, and not from any other, the sentence is perfected and fulfilled. And moreover, in as much as thou hast cursed don Sancho thy son, because of the dishonor and rebellion and despite which he hath done thee, know thou for a surety that the Highest hath heard thy curse;—that all who spring from him shall sink lower and lower, with all their lordship, in such wise that some of them may wish the earth to open and swallow them up: and this shall last until the fourth generation from don Sancho thy son, when thy male heirs shall fail, and none shall remain to inherit this lordship; and the people shall be in grief and trouble, not knowing what counsel to follow. And all this dole shall be for thy sins and others, especially for the sin which thy son and those of the realm have committed in rising against thee. But the Highest shall send them salvation from the East,—a right noble king, and a good and a perfect one, and one endued with justice, and with all the great and noble things becoming a king. And he shall be fatherly to the people, in such wise that the living, and those even whose bones lie in the grave, shall bless God for his coming and for his goodness.* And he shall be aided by the High God, as he shall well merit; so his people shall forget their past sufferings, how great ones soever may befall them before that joyful day. Moreover, know thou for a surety, that by reason of thy continual prayers to the Glorious Mother of God, from seventeen years of age until now, she hath obtained from the Highest, that in thirty days hence thy soul depart from the world and enter purgatory, which is good hope; and in time, when the Highest shall see fit, it shall enter into glory everlasting!"

"And these words being said, the angel vanished; and the king was long afraid. Then he arose quickly, and opened the door of his cabinet, and he found in the room his four chaplains, who never forsook him; and he had great comfort with them in his sufferings, and in reckoning his hours with them: and he made them bring ink and paper, and he made them write down all which the angel had told him. And during the thirty days he confessed and communicated every third day; and except on Sundays, during the whole thirty days, he ate only three mouthfuls of bread in the week, and drank water only, and that no more than once a day. And he confirmed his last testament, and promoted his servants. And at the end of thirty days, his soul departed according to the angel's warning, which he knew through the intercession of Our Lady the Virgin St. Mary."

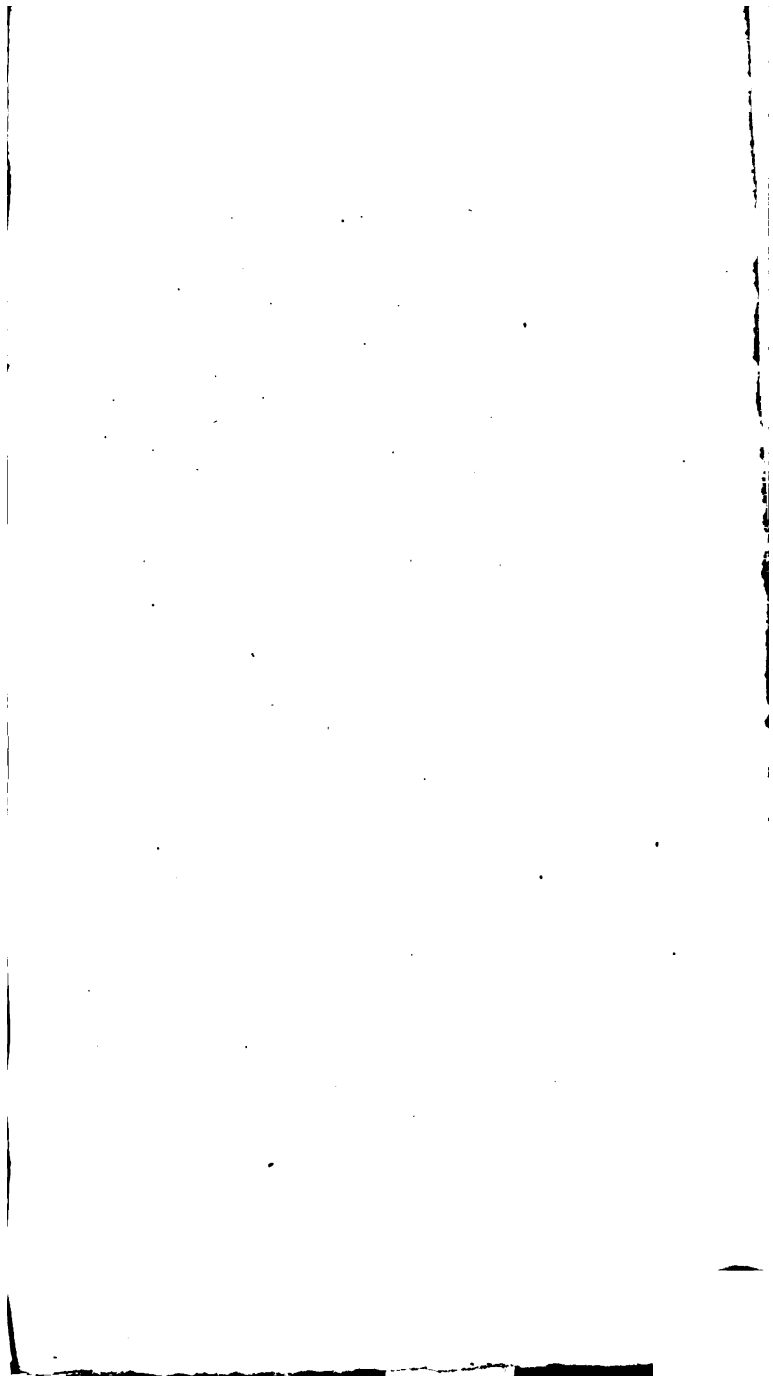
Ortiz thinks it necessary to enter into a formal and lengthened refutation of the angel's visit, and to prove, from the style, the anachronisms, and other circumstances, that it must be a forgery. What must be the mental state of the society where such a refutation is required?

Don Rodrigo Sanchez de Arevalo, bishop of Valencia (in his *Historia Hispana*, lib. iv. cap. 5.), was the first to publish the apparition, but with many varying circumstances. He says that the angel appeared in a dream to one Pedro Martinez of Pampliega, of the household of the infant don Manuel; and that, by order of the celestial messenger, Pedro

* This is probably intended for Fernando of Aragon, husband of Isabel; but the four generations are not very explicable. Ortiz will have it to mean Enrique the Bastard, brother and successor of Pedro the Cruel.

waited on the king at Burgos, who ridiculed the whole matter. Some days having passed, Alfonso went to Segovia, where he was troubled by another visit from a holy hermit, who exhorted him to repentance. The king having caused the messenger to be kicked out of the palace, there arose a furious storm, attended with thunder and lightning, which the night season rendered still more awful; the liquid element fell into the royal apartment, and consumed the queen's wardrobe. The terrified king immediately sent in search of the hermit, begged pardon of God, and confessed his impiety.

END OF THE SECOND VOLUME.





PRIVATE MEMOIRS OF NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, from the French of M. FAUVELET DE BOURRIENNE, Private Secretary to the Emperor. Second American Edition, with great additions; complete in one volume.

"This English translation, which has been very faithfully rendered, is still more valuable than the original work, as upon all points where any obliquity from other published recitals occurs, the translator has given several accounts, and thus, in the form of notes, we are presented with the statements obtained from Napoleon's own dictation at St. Helena, from the Memoirs of the Duke of Rovigo, of General Rapp, of Constant, from the writings of the Marquis of Londonderry, &c."—*U. Ser. Jour.*

"The peculiar advantages of position in regard to his present subject, solely enjoyed by M. de Bourrienne, his literary accomplishments and moral qualifications, have already obtained for these memoirs the first rank in contemporary and authentic history. In France, where they had been for years expected with anxiety, and where, since the revolution, no work connected with that period or its consequent events has created so great a sensation, the volumes of Bourrienne have, from the first, been accepted as the only trustworthy exhibition of the private life and political principles of Napoleon.

"We know from the best political authority now living in England, that the writer's accounts are perfectly corroborated by facts."—*Lit. Gaz.*

"The only authentic Life of Napoleon extant."—*Courier.*

"This splendid publication that literally leaves nothing to be desired."—*Atlas.*

"These volumes may be read with all the interest of a romance."—*Courier.*

"No person who is desirous rightly to appreciate the character of Bonaparte, will neglect the perusal of this work; whoever wishes to know, not merely the General or the Emperor, but what the man really was, will find him well pictured here."—*Times.*

"The completest personal recollections of Napoleon that have appeared."—*Morn. Post.*

"As a part of the history of the most extraordinary man, and the most extraordinary times that ever invited elucidation, these memoirs must continue to the latest ages to be records of invaluable interest."—*Lit. Gaz.*

NARRATIVE OF A VOYAGE TO THE PACIFIC AND BEHRING'S STRAIT, to co-operate with the Polar Expeditions: performed in His Majesty's ship Blossom, under the command of Capt. F. W. BEECHEY, R. N. in the years 1825, 26, 27, 28. 8vo.

"The most interesting of the whole series of expeditions to the North Pole."—*Quarterly Review.*

"This expedition will be for ever memorable as one which has added immensely to our knowledge of this earth that we inhabit."—*Blackwood's Magazine.*

"Captain Beechey's work is a lasting monument of his own abilities, and an honor to his country."—*Lit. Gaz.*

A GENERAL VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF ETHICAL PHILOSOPHY, chiefly during the Seventeenth and Eighteenth centuries. By SIR JAMES MACKINTOSH, M. P. In 8vo.

"This, in our humble opinion, is the best offspring of the pen of an author who in philosophical spirit, knowledge and reflection, richness of moral sentiment, and elegance of style, has altogether no superior—perhaps no equal—among his contemporaries. Some time ago we made copious extracts from this beautiful work. We could not recommend the whole too earnestly."—*National Gazette.*

MISCELLANEOUS.

THE ALHAMBRA; a Series of Tales and Sketches of the Moors and Spaniards. By the author of the Sketch-Book. In 2 vols.

"We have read a part of Washington Irving's new *Sketch Book*, the scene of which is Spain, the most romantic of European countries, and the best known by the gifted author. His style has lost nothing of its peculiar charm,—his descriptions are as graphic as usual, and enlivened with racy anecdotes and happy reflection. We shall probably soon furnish a specimen of this work, from the whole of which we expect gratification."—*Nat. Gazette*.

THE BRAVO. By the author of the "Spy," "Pilot," "Red Rover," &c. In 2 vols. 12mo.

"Let us honestly avow in conclusion, that in addition to the charm of an interesting fiction to be found in these pages, there is more mental power in them, more matter that sets people thinking, more of that quality that is accelerating the onward movement of the world, than in all the Scotch novels that have so deservedly won our admiration."—*New Monthly Mag.*

"This new novel from the pen of our countryman, Cooper, will win new laurels for him. It is full of dramatic interest—"hair-breadth escapes"—animated and bustling scenes on the canals, in the prisons, on the Rialto, in the Adriatic, and in the streets of Venice."—*N. Y. Courier & Enquirer*.

"Of the whole work, we may confidently say that it is very able—a performance of genius and power."—*Nat. Gazette*.

"The Bravo will, we think, tend much to exalt and extend the fame of its author. We have hurried through its pages with an avidity which must find its apology in the interesting character of the incidents and the very vivid and graphic style in which they are described."

By the same author.

THE HEIDENMAUER, or PAGAN CAMP. In 2 vols. (In press.)

SALMONIA; or, Days of Fly Fishing; by SIR H. DAVY.

"We are surprised, in meeting with an American reprint of this delightful volume, that a work so universally popular has not been before republished in this country."—*N. Y. American*.

"One of the most delightful labors of leisure ever seen; not a few of the most beautiful phenomena of nature are here lucidly explained."—*Gent. Mag.*

THE NATURAL HISTORY OF SELBORNE. By the late Rev. GILBERT WHITE, A. M., Fellow of the Oriel College, Oxford, with additions, by Sir William Jardine, Bart. F. R. S. E. F. L. S. M. W. S., author of "Illustrations of Ornithology."

"White's History of Selborne, the most fascinating piece of rural writing and sound English philosophy that has ever issued from the press."—*Athenaeum*.

THE MECHANISM OF THE HEAVENS, by Mrs. SOMERVILLE. In 18mo.

"We possess already innumerable discourses on Astronomy, in which the wonders of the heavens and their laws are treated of; but we can say most conscientiously that we are acquainted with none—not even La Place's own beautiful *exposé* in his *Système du Monde*,—in which all that is essentially interesting in the motions and laws of the celestial bodies, or which is capable of popular enunciation, is so admirably, so graphically, or we may add, so unaffectedly and simply placed before us. * * * Is it asking too much of Mrs. Somerville to express a hope that she will allow this beautiful preliminary Dissertation to be printed separately, for the delight and instruction of thousands of readers, young and old, who cannot understand, or are too indolent to apply themselves to the more elaborate parts of the work? If she will do this, we hereby promise to exert our best endeavors to make its merits known."—*Literary Gazette*.

FAMILY CABINET ATLAS.

IN PREPARATION.

THE FAMILY CABINET ATLAS, CONSTRUCTED UPON AN ORIGINAL PLAN: Being a Companion to the Encyclopædia Americana, Cabinet Cyclopædia, Family Library, Cabinet Library, &c.

This Atlas comprises, in a volume of the Family Library size, nearly 100 Maps and Tablés, which present equal to *Fifty Thousand Names of Places*; a body of information three times as extensive as that supplied by the generality of *Quarto Atlases*.

Opinions of the Public Journals.

"This beautiful and most useful little volume," says the Literary Gazette, "is a perfect picture of elegance, containing a vast sum of geographical information. A more instructive little present, or a gift better calculated to be long preserved and often referred to, could not be offered to favored youth of either sex. Its cheapness, we must add, is another recommendation; for, although this elegant publication contains 100 beautiful engravings, it is issued at a price that can be no obstacle to its being procured by every parent and friend to youth."

"This Atlas far surpasses any thing of the kind which we have seen, and is made to suit the popular libraries which Dr. Lardner and Mr. Murray are now sending into every family in the empire."—*Monthly Review*.

"Its very ingenious method of arrangement secures to the geographical student the information for which hitherto he has been obliged to resort to works of the largest dimensions."—*Athenæum*.

"This miniature and beautiful Atlas is likely to supersede, for general purposes, maps of a more expensive and elaborate character. It appears to us to answer the double purpose of exercising the attention, while it imprints all that is important in Geography on the memory."—*Atlas*.

"The workmanship is among the best of the kind we have ever witnessed."—*Examiner*.

"It contains all the information to be derived from the most expensive and unwieldy Atlas."—*York Courant*.

"An excellent little work, engraved with a clearness and correctness which is quite surprising: when complete, travellers will have a system of Geography and a complete Atlas, which they may carry in their pocket."—*Spectator*.

"This is the most perfect gem of an Atlas which has ever been published."—*Bristol Journal*.

"It corresponds in size with those popular publications to which it will form so useful an addition—namely, 'The Family Library,' 'The Classical Library,' and 'Cabinet Cyclopædia.'"—*Court Journal*.

"Nothing could be devised better calculated to impress upon the mind a knowledge of the general principles of Geography, than the plan of this publication."—*The Warrier*.

"It will be a crying shame in this age of intellect, if this able and beautiful work be not extensively patronized; but we cannot doubt the success which we feel assured its intrinsic merits must secure to it."—*Intelligencer*.

"It is scarcely in the nature of things, that a work of so much public service should fail in meeting with that extensive patronage which can alone remunerate the projectors."—*Leeds Intelligencer*.

"The plates are beautifully executed; and the geographical student may obtain in this little work, such is the excellence of its arrangement, as much information as he could gain by wading through several books of far greater bulk."—*Weekly Dispatch*.

"We have seldom seen a work so perfect in its arrangement, and so elegant in its execution."—*York Courant*.

"For the accuracy of its delineation, and the extent of the information which it conveys, it stands without a rival in English topography."—*Freeman's Journ.*

"The plan of this useful and elegant work may, indeed, be called original. The style and execution of the Maps are of the first character."—*Woolmer's Examiner and Plymouth Gazette*.

"This work is one of the most useful publications which has yet issued from the press; it will be an unique and brilliant accession to the library, and a very useful work to the student in Geography."—*Reading Mercury & Oxford Gazette*.

"Its qualifications will render it one of the most popular, highly interesting, and useful publications of the day."—*Liverpool Courier*.

Miscellaneous.

NOTES ON ITALY, during the years 1829-30. By REMBRANDT PEALE. In 1 vol. 8vo.

"This artist will gratify all reasonable expectation; he is neither ostentatious, nor dogmatical, nor too minute; he is not a partisan nor a carper; he admires without servility, he criticises without malevolence; his frankness and good humor give an agreeable color and effect to all his decisions, and the object of them; his book leaves a useful general idea of the names, works, and deserts, of the great masters; it is an instructive and entertaining index."—*Nat. Gaz.*

"We have made a copious extract in preceding columns from this interesting work of our countryman, Rembrandt Peale, recently published. It has received high commendation from respectable sources, which is justified by the portions we have seen extracted."—*Commercial Advertiser.*

"Mr. Peale must be allowed the credit of candor and entire freedom from affectation in the judgments he has passed. At the same time, we should not omit to notice the variety, extent, and minuteness of his examinations. No church, gallery, or collection, was passed by, and most of the individual pictures are separately and carefully noticed."—*Am. Quarterly Review.*

MEMOIRS OF THE LIFE OF SIR WALTER RALEGH, with some account of the Period in which he lived. By Mrs. A. T. THOMSON. With a portrait.

"Such is the outline of a life, which, in Mrs. Thomson's hands, is a mine of interest; from the first page to the last the attention is roused and sustained, and while we approve the manner, we still more applaud the spirit in which it is executed."—*Literary Gazette.*

"In all respects a most appropriate volume for the Cabinet Library. We shall take an opportunity in another notice, to give some of the many interesting passages in the volume that offer themselves for quotation."—*N. Y. Amer.*

"The book is unquestionably the best Life of Raleigh that has ever been written."—*Album.*

"This is a piece of biography which combines the fascinations of romance with the deeper interest that attaches to historical narrative."—*South. Patriot.*

ELEGANT LIBRARY EDITIONS

OF THE FOLLOWING WORKS.

WORKS OF JOANNA BAILLIE. Complete in 1 volume 8vo. (In the press.)

WORKS OF HENRY FIELDING. In 2 vols. 8vo.; with a portrait.

WORKS OF TOBIAS SMOLLETT. In 2 volumes 8vo., with a portrait. (In the press.)

SELECT SPEECHES OF THE RT. HON. GEORGE CANNING. Edited by ROBERT WALSH, Esq. With a Biographical and Critical Introduction, by the Editor. 1 vol. 8vo. (In press.)

SELECT SPEECHES OF THE RT. HON. WILLIAM HUSKISSON, AND OF THE RT. HON. WILLIAM WINDHAM. Edited by ROBERT WALSH, Esq. With a Biographical and Critical Introduction, by the Editor. In 1 vol. 8vo. (In press.)

THE PEOPLE'S LIBRARY.

"The editors and publishers should receive the thanks of the present generation, and the gratitude of posterity, for being the first to prepare in this language what deserves to be entitled not the **ENCYCLOPÆDIA AMERICANA**, but the **PEOPLE'S LIBRARY**."—*N. Y. Courier and Enquirer*.

Just Published, by Carey & Lea,

And sold in Philadelphia by *E. L. Carey & A. Hart*; in New-York by *G. & C. & H. Carvill*; in Boston by *Carter & Hendee*; in Baltimore by *E. J. Coale, & W. & J. Neal*; in Washington by *Thompson & Homans*; in Richmond by *J. H. Nash*; in Savannah by *W. T. Williams*; in Charleston by *W. H. Berrett*; in New-Orleans by *W. M. Kean*; in Mobile by *Odiorne & Smith*; and by the principal booksellers throughout the Union.

VOLUME 9,

CONTAINING ABOUT 1,500 ARTICLES,

(To be continued at intervals of three months.)

OF THE

ENCYCLOPÆDIA AMERICANA:

A

POPULAR DICTIONARY

OF

ARTS, SCIENCES, LITERATURE, HISTORY, AND POLITICS,

BROUGHT DOWN TO THE PRESENT TIME, AND INCLUDING A COPIOUS
COLLECTION OF ORIGINAL ARTICLES IN

AMERICAN BIOGRAPHY:

On the basis of the Seventh Edition of the German

CONVERSATIONS-LEXICON.

EDITED BY FRANCIS LIEBER,

ASSISTED BY

EDWARD WIGGLESWORTH AND T. G. BRADFORD, ESQRS.

IN TWELVE LARGE VOLUMES, OCTAVO, PRICE TO SUBSCRIBERS,
BOUND IN CLOTH, TWO DOLLARS AND A HALF EACH.

EACH VOLUME WILL CONTAIN BETWEEN 600 AND 700 PAGES.

"THE WORLD-RENOWNED CONVERSATIONS-LEXICON."—*Edinburgh Review*.

"To supersede cumbrous Encyclopedias, and put within the reach of the poorest man, a complete library, equal to about forty or fifty good-sized octavos, embracing every possible subject of interest to the number of 20,000 in all—provided he can spare either from his earnings or his extravagancies, twenty cents a week, for three years, a library so contrived, as to be equally suited to the learned and the unlearned,—the mechanic—the merchant, and the professional man."—*N. Y. Courier and Inquirer*.

"The reputation of this valuable work has augmented with each volume; and if the unanimous opinion of the press, uttered from all quarters, be true, which in this instance happens to be the case, it is indeed one of the best of publications. It should be in the possession of every intelligent man, as it is a library in itself, comprising an immense mass of lore upon almost every possible subject, and in the cheapest possible form."—*N. Y. Mirror*.

ENCYCLOPÆDIA AMERICANA.

MORE than half of the volumes of this work are now before the public, and the reception they have met with is the best evidence that the publishers have fulfilled the promises made at its outset. They have now only to promise, for the editors and themselves, that no exertion shall be spared to render the remaining volumes equal to those already published, and thus sustain the reputation it has acquired. The subscription is large, and increasing; and in those quarters where its circulation is greatest, and where it is best known, there is a constantly increasing demand. The publishers invite the attention of those who may not already have possessed themselves of it, or may not have had an opportunity to become acquainted with its merits, to the following account of the original work, upon which it is based, and which is termed by the Edinburgh Review—

THE WORLD-RENOWNED LEIPZIG CONVERSATIONS LEXICON.

It was intended to supply a want occasioned by the character of the age, in which the sciences, arts, trades, and the various forms of knowledge and of active life, had become so much extended and diversified, that no individual engaged in business could become well acquainted with all subjects of general interest; while the wide diffusion of information rendered such knowledge essential to the character of an accomplished man. This want, no existing works were adequate to supply. Books treating of particular branches, such as gazetteers, &c. were too confined in character; while voluminous Encyclopædias were too learned, scientific, and cumbrous, being usually elaborate treatises, requiring much study or previous acquaintance with the subject discussed. The conductors of the CONVERSATION LEXICON endeavored to select from every branch of knowledge what was necessary to a well-informed mind, and to give popular views of the more abstruse branches of learning and science; that their readers might not be incommoded, and deprived of pleasure or improvement, by ignorance of facts or expressions used in books or conversation. Such a work must obviously be of great utility to every class of readers. It has been found so much so in Germany, that it is met with everywhere, among the learned, the lawyers, the military, artists, merchants, mechanics, and men of all stations. The reader may judge how well it is adapted to its object, from the circumstance, that though it now consists of twelve volumes, seven editions, comprising about ONE HUNDRED THOUSAND COPIES, have been printed in less than fifteen years. It has been translated into the Swedish, Danish and Dutch languages, and a French translation is now preparing in Paris.

In the preparation of the American edition, no expense has been spared to secure the ablest assistance, and the editors have been aided by many gentlemen of distinguished ability.

The American Biography, which is very extensive has been furnished by MR. WALSH, who has long paid particular attention to that branch of our literature, and from materials in the collection of which he has been engaged for some years. For obvious reasons, the notices of distinguished Americans will be confined to deceased individuals: the European biography contains notices of all distinguished living characters, as well as those of past times.

The articles on Zoology and the various branches of Natural Science, and those on Chemistry and Mineralogy, have been prepared expressly for this work by gentlemen distinguished in the several departments.

In relation to the Fine Arts, the work is exceedingly rich. Great attention was given to this in the German work, and the Editors have been anxious to render it, by the necessary additions, as perfect as possible.

To gentlemen of the Bar, the work will be peculiarly valuable, as in cases where legal subjects are treated, an account is given of English, French, German and American Law.

ENCYCLOPÆDIA AMERICANA.

"Witnesses from every part of the country concurred in declaring that the *Encyclopædia Americana* was in a fair way to degrade the dignity of learning, and especially the learning of *Encyclopædias*, by making it *too cheap*—that the multitudes of all classes were infatuated with it in saying in so many words from the highest to the lowest, 'the more we see of the work the better we like it.'"—*N. Y. Courier and Inquirer*.

"The articles in the present volume appear to us to evince the same ability and research which gained so favorable a reception for the work at its commencement. The *Appendix* to the volume now before us, containing an account of the *Indian Languages of America*, must prove highly interesting to the reader in this country; and it is at once remarkable as a specimen of history and philology. The work altogether, we may again be permitted to observe, reflects distinguished credit upon the literary and scientific character, as well as the scholarship of our country."—*Charleston Courier*.

"The copious information which this work affords on American subjects, fully justifies its title of an American Dictionary; while at the same time the extent, variety, and felicitous disposition of its topics, make it the most convenient and satisfactory *Encyclopædia* that we have ever seen."—*National Journal*.

"If the succeeding volumes shall equal in merit the one before us, we may confidently anticipate for the work a reputation and usefulness which ought to secure for it the most flattering encouragement and patronage."—*Federal Gazette*.

"The variety of topics is of course vast, and they are treated in a manner which is at once so full of information and so interesting, that the work, instead of being merely referred to, might be regularly perused with as much pleasure as profit."—*Baltimore American*.

"We view it as a publication worthy of the age and of the country, and cannot but believe the discrimination of our countrymen will sustain the publishers, and well reward them for this contribution to American Literature."—*Baltimore Patriot*.

"It reflects the greatest credit on those who have been concerned in its production, and promises, in a variety of respects, to be the best as well as the most compendious dictionary of the arts, sciences, history, politics, biography, &c. which has yet been compiled. The style of the portion we have read is terse and perspicuous; and it is really curious how so much scientific and other information could have been so satisfactorily communicated in such brief limits."—*N. Y. Evening Post*.

"A compendious library, and invaluable book of reference."—*N. Y. American*.

"Those who can, by any honest modes of economy, reserve the sum of two dollars and fifty cents quarterly, from their family expenses, may pay for this work as fast as it is published; and we confidently believe that they will find at the end that they never purchased so much general, practical, useful information at so cheap a rate."—*Journal of Education*.

"If the encouragement to the publishers should correspond with the testimony in favor of their enterprise, and the beautiful and faithful style of its execution, the hazard of the undertaking, bold as it was, will be well compensated; and our libraries will be enriched by the most generally useful encyclopedic dictionary that has been offered to the readers of the English language. Full enough for the general scholar, and plain enough for every capacity, it is far more convenient, in every view and form, than its more expensive and ponderous predecessors."—*American Farmer*.

"The high reputation of the contributors to this work, will not fail to insure it a favorable reception, and its own merits will do the rest."—*Silliman's Journ.*

"The work will be a valuable possession to every family or individual that can afford to purchase it; and we take pleasure, therefore, in extending the knowledge of its merits."—*National Intelligencer*.

"The *Encyclopædia Americana* is a prodigious improvement upon all that has gone before it; a thing for our country, as well as the country that gave it birth, to be proud of; an inexhaustible treasury of useful, pleasant, and familiar learning on every possible subject, so arranged as to be speedily and safely referred to on emergency, as well as on deliberate inquiry; and better still, adapted to the understanding, and put within the reach of the multitude. * * * The *Encyclopædia Americana* is a work without which no library worthy of the name can hereafter be made up."—*Yankee*.

ENCYCLOPÆDIA AMERICANA.

"This work appears to improve as it issues from the press. The number of able writers, who contribute original matter in all the departments of literature and science is amply sufficient to give it celebrity and high character. To men engaged in the active pursuits of life—whose time is precious—this popular dictionary is a most valuable and ready mode of reference. It embraces brief views and sketches of all the late discoveries in science—and the present condition of literature, politics, &c. &c. Every merchant's counting-room—every lawyer's library—every mechanic—every farmer ought to possess a copy of this useful and valuable work."—*Courier*.

"From the specimen which has already been given, we have no hesitation in saying, that in regard to intelligence, skill, and faithful diligence, it is a work of the very highest order. We know of no similar publication that can bear any comparison with it for the rich variety of valuable information, which it condenses within so small a compass. It is free from all the narrowness of English prejudice, it contains many important and interesting details which can be found in no English production, and is a work which could be written by none but German scholars, more than two hundred of whom were employed in the original compilation."—*Boston Observer*.

"This cannot but prove a valuable addition to the literature of the age."—*Mer. Advertiser*.

"The vast circulation this work has had in Europe, where it has already been reprinted in four or five languages, not to speak of the numerous German editions, of which seven have been published, speaks loudly in favor of its intrinsic merit, without which such a celebrity could never have been attained. To every man engaged in public business, who needs a correct and ample book of reference on various topics of science and letters, the *Encyclopædia Americana* will be almost invaluable. To individuals obliged to go to situations where books are neither numerous nor easily procured, the rich contents of these twelve volumes will prove a mine which will amply repay its purchaser, and be with difficulty exhausted; and we recommend it to their patronage in the full conviction of its worth. Indeed, it is difficult to say to what class of readers such a book would not prove useful, nay, almost indispensable, since it combines a great amount of valuable matter in small compass, and at moderate expense, and is in every respect well suited to augment the reader's stock of ideas, and powers of conversation, without severely taxing time or fatiguing attention."—*Am. Daily Advertiser*.

"The department of American Biography, a subject of which it should be disgraceful to be ignorant, to the degree that many are, is, in this work, a prominent feature, and has received the attention of one of the most indefatigable writers in this department of literature, which the present age can furnish."—*Boston Courier*.

"According to the plan of Dr. Lieber, a desideratum will be supplied; the substance of contemporary knowledge will be brought within a small compass;—and the character and uses of a manual will be imparted to a kind of publication heretofore reserved, on strong shelves, for occasional reference. By those who understand the German language, the *Conversation Lexicon* is consulted ten times for one application to any English *Encyclopædia*."—*National Gazette*.

"The volume now published is not only highly honorable to the taste, ability, and industry of its editors and publishers, but furnishes a proud sample of the accuracy and elegance with which the most elaborate and important literary enterprises may now be accomplished in our country. Of the manner in which the editors have thus far completed their task, it is impossible, in the course of a brief newspaper article, to speak with adequate justice."—*Boston Bulletin*.

"It continues to be particularly rich in the departments of Biography and Natural History. When we look at the large mass of miscellaneous knowledge spread before the reader, in a form which has never been equalled for its condensation, and conveyed in a style that cannot be surpassed for propriety and perspicuity, we cannot but think that the American *Encyclopædia* deserves a place in every collection, in which works of reference form a portion."—*Southern Patriot*.

"By far the best work of the kind ever offered for sale in this country."—*U. S. Gaz*

CABINET CYCLOPÆDIA,

CONDUCTED BY THE

REV. DIONYSIUS LARDNER, LL. D. F. R. S. L. & E.

M. R. I. A. F. L. S. F. Z. S. Hon. F. C. P. S. M. Ast. S. &c. &c.

ASSISTED BY

EMINENT LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC MEN.

Now Publishing by Carey & Lea, and for sale by all Booksellers.

THIS work will form a popular compendium of whatever is useful, instructive, and interesting, in the circle of human knowledge. A novel plan of publication and arrangement has been adopted, which presents peculiar advantages. Without fully detailing the method, a few of these advantages may be mentioned.

Each volume will contain one or more subjects uninterrupted and unbroken, and will be accompanied by the corresponding plates or other appropriate illustrations. Facility of reference will be obtained without fettering the work by a continued alphabetical arrangement. A subscriber may omit particular volumes or sets of volumes, without disintegrating his series. Thus each purchaser may form from the "CABINET" a Cyclopædia, more or less comprehensive, as may suit his means, taste, or profession. If a subscriber desire to discontinue the work at any stage of its publication, the volumes which he may have received will not lose their value by separation from the rest of the work, since they will always either be complete in themselves, or may be made so at a trifling expense.

The purchasers will never find their property in this work destroyed by the publication of a second edition. The arrangement is such that particular volumes may be re-edited or re-written without disturbing the others. The "CABINET CYCLOPÆDIA" will thus be in a state of continual renovation, keeping pace with the never-ceasing improvements in knowledge, drawing within its circle from year to year whatever is new, and casting off whatever is obsolete, so as to form a constantly modernized Cyclopædia. Such are a few of the advantages which the proprietors have to offer to the public, and which they pledge themselves to realize.

Treatises on subjects which are technical and professional will be adapted, not so much to those who desire to attain a practical proficiency, as to those who seek that portion of information respecting such matters which is generally expected from well-educated persons. An interest will be imparted to what is abstract by copious illustrations, and the sciences will be rendered attractive, by treating them with reference to the most familiar objects and occurrences.

The unwieldy bulk of Encyclopædias, not less than the abstruse discussions which they contain, has hitherto consigned them to the library, as works of only occasional reference. The present work, from its portable form and popular style, will claim a place in the drawing-room and the boudoir. Forming in itself a *Complete Library*, affording an extensive and infinitely varied store of instruction and amusement, presenting just so much on every subject as those not professionally engaged in it require, convenient in size, attractive in form, elegant in illustrations, and most moderate in expense, the "CABINET CYCLOPÆDIA" will, it is hoped, be found an object of paramount interest in every family.

To the heads of schools and all places of public education the proprietors trust that this work will particularly recommend itself.

It seems scarcely necessary to add, that nothing will be admitted into the pages of the "CABINET CYCLOPÆDIA" which can have the most remote tendency to offend public or private morals. To enforce the cultivation of religion and the practice of virtue should be a principal object with all who undertake to inform the public mind; but with the views just explained, the conductor of this work feels these considerations more especially pressed upon his attention. Parents and guardians may, therefore, rest assured that they will never find it necessary to place a volume of the "CABINET" beyond the reach of their children or pupils.

LARDNER'S CABINET CYCLOPÆDIA.

CONSIDERABLE progress having been made in this work, the publishers wish to direct the attention of the public to the advantages by which it is distinguished from other similar monthly publications.

It is not intended that the Cabinet Cyclopædia shall form an interminable series, in which any work of interest which may present itself from time to time can claim a place. Its subjects are classified according to the usual divisions of literature, science, and art. Each division is distinctly traced out, and will consist of a determinate number of volumes. Although the precise extent of the work cannot be fixed with certainty, yet there is a limit which will not be exceeded; and the subscribers may look forward to the possession, within a reasonable time, of a complete library of instruction, amusement, and general reference, in the regular form of a popular Cyclopædia.

The several classes of the work are—1, NATURAL PHILOSOPHY; 2, The USEFUL and FINE ARTS; 3, NATURAL HISTORY; 4, GEOGRAPHY; 5, POLITICS and MORALS; 6, GENERAL LITERATURE and CRITICISM; 7, HISTORY; 8, BIOGRAPHY.

In the above abstruse and technical departments of knowledge, an attempt has been made to convey to the reader a general acquaintance with these subjects, by the use of plain and familiar language, appropriate and well-executed engravings, and copious examples and illustrations, taken from objects and events with which every one is acquainted.

The proprietors formerly pledged themselves that no exertion should be spared to obtain the support of the most distinguished talent of the age. They trust that they have redeemed that pledge. Among the volumes already published in the literary department, no less than four have been the production of men who stand in the first rank of literary talent,—Sir James Mackintosh and Sir Walter Scott. In the scientific department, a work has been produced from the pen of Mr. Herschel, which has been pronounced by the highest living authority on subjects of general philosophy, to contain "the noblest observations on the value of knowledge which have been made since Bacon," and to be "the finest work of philosophical genius which this age has seen."

The following is a selection from the list of Contributors.

The Right Honorable Sir JAMES MACKINTOSH, M.P.

The Right Rev The Lord Bishop of Cloyne.

Sir WALTER SCOTT, Bart.

JOHN FREDERICK WILLIAM HERSCHEL, Esq.

THOMAS MOORE, Esq.

J. B. BIOT, Member of the French Institute.

ROBERT SOUTHHEY, Esq. Poet Laureate.

The Baron CHARLES DUPIN, Member of the Royal Institute and Chamber of Deputies.

THOMAS CAMPBELL, Esq.

T. B. MACAULEY, Esq. M.P.

DAVID BREWSTER, LL.D.

J. C. L. SISMONDI, of Geneva.

Capt. HENRY KATER, Vice President of the Royal Society.

The ASTRONOMER ROYAL.

DAVIES GILBERT, Esq. M.P.

S. T. COLERIDGE, Esq.

JAMES MONTGOMERY, Esq.

The Right Hon. T. P. COURTENAY, M.P.

J. J. BÉRZELIUS, of Stockholm, F.R.S., &c.

The Rev. G. R. GLEIG.

T. PHILLIPS, Esq. Prof. of Painting, R.A.

Rev. C. THIRLWALL, Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge.

ANDREW URE, M.D. F.R.S. &c. &c. &c.

DR. LARDNER'S CABINET CYCLOPÆDIA.

VOLUMES PUBLISHED.

- I. II.—HISTORY OF SCOTLAND. By SIR WALTER SCOTT.
 III. VI.—HISTORY OF ENGLAND. By SIR JAMES MACKINTOSH. In 8 Vols. Vols. I. and II.
 IV.—OUTLINES OF HISTORY.
 V.—HISTORY OF THE NETHERLANDS. By T. C. GRATTAN, Esq.
 VII. VIII. XII.—HISTORY OF FRANCE. By EYRE EVANS CROWE. In 3 Vols.
 IX.—MECHANICS. By CAPT. KATER and DR. LARDNER, (complete).
 X.—A PRELIMINARY DISCOURSE ON THE OBJECTS, ADVANTAGES, AND PLEASURES OF THE STUDY OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY. In 1 Vol. By F. J. W. HERSCHEL, Esq.
 N B.—This work forms the Introduction or Preface to the Cabinet of Natural Philosophy in the Cyclopædia.
 XI.—BIOGRAPHY OF EMINENT BRITISH STATESMEN.
 XIII.—HYDROSTATICS AND PNEUMATICS. By DR. LARDNER.
 XIV.—HISTORY OF THE PROGRESS AND PRESENT SITUATION OF THE SILK MANUFACTURE.
 XV.—HISTORY OF THE ITALIAN REPUBLICS. By J. C. L. SISMONDI.
 XVI.—HISTORY OF THE PROGRESS AND PRESENT SITUATION OF THE MANUFACTURE OF PORCELAIN AND GLASS. With numerous cuts.

VOLUMES IN IMMEDIATE PREPARATION.

- HISTORY OF ENGLAND. Vol. III.
 HISTORY OF MARITIME AND INLAND DISCOVERY. In 3 Vols.
 LIVES OF EMINENT BRITISH LAWYERS. In 1 Vol. By H. ROBCOE, Esq.
 THE HISTORY OF THE WESTERN WORLD. In 4 Vols. Vol. I. THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.
 Two volumes of this work, nearly ready, will complete the History of the United States to the present time. The two remaining volumes will be devoted to South America and the West India Islands.
 A HISTORY OF IRELAND, TO THE UNION. In 2 Vols. By T. MOORE, Esq.
 A PRELIMINARY DISCOURSE ON THE USEFUL ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. By the BARON CHARLES DUPIN, Member of the Institute of France and of the Chamber of Deputies.
 A HISTORY OF THE MOORS. In 3 Vols. By ROBERT SOUTHEY, Esq.
 LIVES OF THE MOST EMINENT LITERARY MEN OF ALL NATIONS. In 8 Vols. By SCOTT, SOUTHEY, MOORE, MACKINTOSH, MONTGOMERY, CUNNINGHAM, and all the principal Literary and Scientific Contributors to the Cyclopædia.
 A TREATISE ON ASTRONOMY. By J. F. W. HERSCHEL, Esq.
 GEOGRAPHY. In 4 Vols. By W. COOLEY, Esq. author of the "History of Maritime Discovery."
 LIVES OF THE MOST DISTINGUISHED BRITISH NAVAL COMMANDERS. By R. SOUTHEY, Esq.
 LIVES OF THE MOST DISTINGUISHED BRITISH MILITARY COMMANDERS. By the Rev. G. R. GLEIG.
 THE HISTORY OF GREECE. In 3 vols. By the Rev. C. THIRLWALL.
 LIVES OF EMINENT BRITISH ARTISTS. By W. Y. OTLEY, Esq. and T. PHILLIPS, R. A. Professor of Painting to the Royal Academy.
 A TREATISE ON ELECTRICITY AND MAGNETISM. By M. BIOT, Member of the French Institute.

LARDNER'S CABINET CYCLOPEDIA.

"BOOKS THAT YOU MAY CARRY TO THE FIRE, AND HOLD READILY IN YOUR HAND, ARE THE MOST USEFUL AFTER ALL. A MAN WILL OFTEN LOOK AT THEM, AND BE TEMPTED TO GO ON, WHEN HE WOULD HAVE BEEN FRIGHTENED AT BOOKS OF A LARGER SIZE, AND OF A MORE ERUDITE APPEARANCE."

Dr. Johnson.

"We advisedly call the Cabinet Cyclopædia a great undertaking, because we consider, that in its effects on the tone and habits of thought of what is known by the phrase, 'the reading public,' it will be, if carried through in the spirit of its projection and commencement, one of the most invaluable productions of modern literature. * *

"But these advantages, eminent as they undoubtedly are, are not the sole nor the chief recommendations of the Cabinet Cyclopædia. Neither is it on the extreme cheapness of the publication, nor the federal independence—if we may so speak—of its several volumes, that we rest our prediction of its influence on the tone of thinking of the present, and on the literature of the next generation—but on the promise, amounting almost to a moral certainty, of the great excellence of its execution. A multitude of persons eminent in literature and science in the United Kingdom are employed in this undertaking; and, indeed, no others should be employed in it; for it is a truth that the profound and practised writer alone is capable of furnishing a popular compendium."

"What parent or guardian that throws his eye over the list of its contributors but must be rejoiced by meeting the names of those who are in themselves a guarantee of intellectual and moral excellence?"—*Literary Gazette.*

"The plan of the work appears well adapted to the purpose it is proposed to fulfil—that of supplying a series of publications, embracing the whole range of literature and science, in a popular and portable form; while the excellence of the execution is guaranteed by the judgment displayed in the selection of writers. The list of authors employed in this ambitious undertaking comprises some of the most eminent men of the present age."—*Atlas.*

"The Cyclopædia, when complete, will form a valuable work of reference, as well as a most entertaining and instructive library. It is an essential principle in every part of it, that it should be clear and easily understood, and that an attempt should everywhere be made to unite accurate information with an agreeable manner of conveying it. It is an experiment to try how much science may be taught with little crabbed or technical language, and how far the philosophical and poetical qualities of history may be preserved in its more condensed state. It possesses also the most indispensable of all the qualities of a work intended for general instruction—that of cheapness. Whatever the plan might be, it was evident that the grand difficulty of Dr. Lardner was to unite a body of writers in its execution, whose character or works afforded the most probable hope that they were fitted for a task of which the peculiarity, the novelty, and even the prevalent relish for such writings greatly enhance the difficulty. We do not believe, that in the list of contributors, there is one name of which the enlightened part of the public would desire the exclusion.

"In science, the list is not less promising. The names of the President, Vice-Presidents, and most distinguished Fellows of the Royal Society, are contained in it. A treatise on astronomy, by Herschel; on optics, by Brewster; and on mechanics, by Lardner; need be only recommended by the subjects and the writers. An eminent Prelate, of the first rank in science, has undertaken a noble subject which happily combines philosophy with religion. Twelve of the most distinguished naturalists of the age, Fellows of the Linnean and Zoological Societies, are preparing a course of natural history. Others not less eminent in literature and science, whose names it is not needful yet to mention, have shown symptoms of an ambition to take a place among such fellow-laborers."—*Times.*

"The topics, as may be supposed, are both judiciously selected and treated with ability. To general readers, and as part of a family library, the volumes already published possess great recommendations. For the external beauties of good printing and paper they merit equal commendation."—*Balt. American.*

"The uniform neatness of these volumes, their very moderate price, and the quantity of information which they contain, drawn from the best and most attractive sources, have given them deserved celebrity, and no one who desires to possess such information, should hesitate a moment to add them to his library."—*Fed. Gazette.*

"This excellent work continues to increase in public favor, and to receive fresh accessions of force to its corps of contributors."—*Lit. Gazette.*

"Its plan and arrangement are entitled to our best commendations."—*Genl. Mag.*

LARDNER'S CABINET CYCLOPÆDIA.

"IT IS NOT EASY TO DEVISE A CURE FOR SUCH A STATE OF THINGS (THE DECLINING TASTE FOR SCIENCE;) BUT THE MOST OBVIOUS REMEDY IS TO PROVIDE THE EDUCATED CLASSES WITH A SERIES OF WORKS ON POPULAR AND PRACTICAL SCIENCE, FREED FROM MATHEMATICAL SYMBOLS AND TECHNICAL TERMS, WRITTEN IN SIMPLE AND PERSPICUOUS LANGUAGE, AND ILLUSTRATED BY FACTS AND EXPERIMENTS, WHICH ARE LEVEL TO THE CAPACITY OF ORDINARY MINDS." *Quarterly Review.*

PRELIMINARY DISCOURSE ON THE OBJECTS, ADVANTAGES, AND PLEASURES OF THE STUDY OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY. By J. T. W. Herschel, A. M. late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.

"Without disparaging any other of the many interesting and instructive volumes issued in the form of cabinet and family libraries, it is, perhaps, not too much to place at the head of the list, for extent and variety of condensed information, Mr. Herschel's discourse of Natural Philosophy in Dr. Lardner's Cyclopædia."—*Christian Observer.*

"The finest work of philosophical genius which this age has seen."—*Mackintosh's England.*

"By far the most delightful book to which the existing competition between literary rivals of great talent and enterprise has given rise."—*Monthly Review.*

"Mr. Herschel's delightful volume. * * * We find scattered through the work instances of vivid and happy illustration, where the fancy is usefully called into action, so as sometimes to remind us of the splendid pictures which crowd upon us in the style of Bacon."—*Quarterly Review.*

"It is the most exciting volume of the kind we ever met with."—*Monthly Magazine.*

"One of the most instructive and delightful books we have ever perused."—*U. S. Journal.*

A TREATISE ON MECHANICS. By Capt. Kater, and the Rev. Dionysius Lardner. With numerous engravings.

"A work which contains an uncommon amount of useful information, exhibited in a plain and very intelligible form."—*Olmsted's Nat. Philosophy.*

"This volume has been lately published in England, as a part of Dr. Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopædia, and has received the unsolicited approbation of the most eminent men of science; and the most discriminating journals and reviews, in the British metropolis.—It is written in a popular and intelligible style, entirely free from mathematical symbols, and disencumbered as far as possible of technical phrases."—*Boston Traveller.*

"Admirable in development and clear in principles, and especially felicitous in illustration from familiar subjects."—*Monthly Mag.*

"Though replete with philosophical information of the highest order in mechanics, adapted to ordinary capacities in a way to render it at once intelligible and popular."—*Lit. Gazette.*

"A work of great merit, full of valuable information, not only to the practical mechanic, but to the man of science."—*N. Y. Courier and Enquirer.*

A TREATISE ON HYDROSTATICS AND PNEUMATICS. By the Rev. D. Lardner. With numerous engravings.

"It fully sustains the favorable opinion we have already expressed as to this valuable compendium of modern science."—*Lit. Gazette.*

"Dr. Lardner has made a good use of his acquaintance with the familiar facts which illustrate the principles of science."—*Monthly Magazine.*

"It is written with a full knowledge of the subject, and in a popular style, abounding in practical illustrations of the abstruse operations of these important sciences."—*U. S. Journal.*

LARDNER'S CABINET CYCLOPÆDIA.

HISTORY OF THE RISE, PROGRESS, AND PRESENT STATE OF THE SILK MANUFACTURE; with numerous engravings.

"The volume treats of everything relating to the fabric, embracing many historical observations and interesting facts in natural history, with practical directions of the minutest kind, for the guidance of those engaged in the production or the manufacture of silk. These details, with the accompanying engravings of machinery, must prove particularly valuable to those who wish to attain an accurate knowledge of a very important art, on the history of which alone the general reader will find much to interest him in the first part of the volume."—*N. Y. American*.

"It contains abundant information in every department of this interesting branch of human industry—in the history, culture, and manufacture of silk."—*Monthly Magazine*.

"There is a great deal of curious information in this little volume."—*Lit. Gaz.*

HISTORY OF THE ITALIAN REPUBLICS; being a View of the Rise, Progress, and Fall of Italian Freedom. By J. C. L. De Sismondi.

"The excellencies, defects, and fortunes of the governments of the Italian commonwealths form a body of the most valuable materials for political philosophy. It is time that they should be accessible to the American people, as they are about to be rendered in Sismondi's masterly abridgment. He has done for his large work, what Irving accomplished so well for his *Life of Columbus*."—*Nat. Gazette*.

HISTORY OF THE RISE, PROGRESS, AND PRESENT STATE OF THE MANUFACTURES OF PORCELAIN AND GLASS. With numerous wood cuts.

HISTORY OF THE RISE, PROGRESS, AND PRESENT STATE OF THE IRON AND STEEL MANUFACTURE. (In press.)

"This volume appears to contain all useful information on the subject of which it treats."—*Lit. Gazette*.

"These volumes are full of interest. * * * The present volume embraces the manufactures of Iron and Steel only, and describes the present state of the more important branches of both. Bridges, cannon, anchors, chains, screws, figure in the first department—files, edge-tools, and saws, the latter; and the history of all forms not the least interesting portion."—*Mechanic's Magazine*.

BIOGRAPHY OF BRITISH STATESMEN; containing the Lives of Sir Thomas More, by SIR JAMES MACKINTOSH; Cardinal Wolsey, Archbishop Cranmer, and Lord Burleigh.

"A very delightful volume, and on a subject likely to increase in interest as it proceeds. * * * We cordially commend the work both for its design and execution."—*London Lit. Gazette*.

"The Life of More, being from the pen of Sir James Mackintosh, engaged and fully rewarded our attention. It is a rich theme, and has been treated with the lofty philosophical spirit and literary skill which distinguish the writings of Sir James."—*Nat. Gazette*.

"We are certain, that no one can rise from the perusal of the work, without having his understanding enlarged, and the best affections of his heart improved."—*Album*.

"A most interesting and valuable volume."—*Gent. Magazine*.

ELEMENTS OF OPTICS. By David Brewster. 18mo. (In press.)

"The author has given proof of his well-known industry, and extensive acquaintance with the results of science in every part of Europe."—*Month. Mag.*

"The subject is, as might be expected, ably treated, and clearly illustrated."—*U. S. Jour.*

LARDNER'S CABINET CYCLOPÆDIA.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND. By Sir James Mackintosh. In 8 Vols. Vols. 1 and 2 published.

"In the first volume of Sir James Mackintosh's History of England, we find enough to warrant the anticipations of the public, that a calm and luminous philosophy will diffuse itself over the long narrative of our British History."—*Edinburgh Review*.

"In this volume Sir James Mackintosh fully develops those great powers, for the possession of which the public have long given him credit. The result is the ablest commentary that has yet appeared in our language upon some of the most important circumstances of English History."—*Atlas*.

"Worthy in the method, style, and reflections, of the author's high reputation. We were particularly pleased with his high vein of philosophical sentiment, and his occasional survey of contemporary annals."—*National Gazette*.

"If talents of the highest order, long experience in politics, and years of application to the study of history and the collection of information, can command superiority in a historian, Sir James Mackintosh may, without reading this work, be said to have produced the best history of this country. A perusal of the work will prove that those who anticipated a superior production, have not reckoned in vain on the high qualifications of the author."—*Courier*.

"Our anticipations of this volume were certainly very highly raised, and unlike such anticipations in general, they have not been disappointed. A philosophical spirit, a nervous style, and a full knowledge of the subject, acquired by considerable research into the works of preceding chroniclers and historians, eminently distinguish this popular abridgment, and cannot fail to recommend it to universal approbation. In continuing his work as he has begun, Sir James Mackintosh will confer a great benefit on his country."—*London Lit. Gazette*.

"Of its general merits, and its permanent value, it is impossible to speak, without the highest commendation, and after a careful and attentive perusal of the two volumes which have been published, we are enabled to declare that, so far, Sir James Mackintosh has performed the duty to which he was assigned, with all the ability that was to be expected from his great previous attainments, his laborious industry in investigation, his excellent judgment, his superior talents, and his honorable principles."—*Inquirer*.

"We shall probably extract the whole of his view of the reformation, merely to show how that important topic has been handled by so able and philosophical a writer, professing Protestantism."—*National Gazette*.

"The talents of Sir James Mackintosh are so justly and deeply respected, that a strong interest is necessarily excited with regard to any work which such a distinguished writer may think fit to undertake. In the present instance, as in all others, our expectations are fully gratified."—*Gentleman's Magazine*.

"The second volume of the History of England, forming the sixth of Carey & Lea's Cabinet Cyclopædia, has been sent abroad, and entirely sustains the reputation of its predecessors. The various factions and dissensions, the important trials and battles, which render this period so conspicuous in the page of history, are all related with great clearness and masterly power."—*Boston Traveller*.

HISTORY OF SCOTLAND. By Sir Walter Scott. In 2 Vols.

"The History of Scotland, by Sir Walter Scott, we do not hesitate to declare, will be, if possible, more extensively read, than the most popular work of fiction, by the same prolific author, and for this obvious reason: it combines much of the brilliant coloring of the *Ivanhoe* pictures of by-gone manners, and all the graceful facility of style and picturesqueness of description of his other charming romances, with a minute fidelity to the facts of history, and a searching scrutiny into their authenticity and relative value, which might put to the blush Mr. Hume and other professed historians. Such is the magic charm of Sir Walter Scott's pen, it has only to touch the simplest incident of every-day life, and it starts up invested with all the interest of a scene of romance; and yet such is his fidelity to the text of nature, that the knights, and serfs, and collared fools with whom his inventive genius has peopled so many volumes, are regarded by us as not mere creations of fancy, but as real flesh and blood existences, with all the virtues, feelings and errors of common-place humanity."—*Lit. Gazette*.

LARDNER'S CABINET CYCLOPÆDIA.

"OF THE MANY WORKS WHICH HAVE BEEN LATELY PUBLISHED IN IMITATION, OR ON THE PLAN ADOPTED BY THE SOCIETY FOR THE DIFFUSION OF USEFUL KNOWLEDGE, DR. LARDNER'S CYCLOPÆDIA IS BY MUCH THE MOST VALUABLE, AND THE MOST RECOMMENDED BY DISTINGUISHED ASSISTANCE, SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY."—*Edinburgh Review*.

HISTORY OF FRANCE. By Eyre Evans Crowe. In 3 vols.

HISTORY OF FRANCE, from the Restoration of the Bourbons, to the Revolution of 1830. By T. B. Macaulay, Esq. M. P. Nearly ready.

"The style is concise and clear; and events are summed up with much vigor and originality."—*Lit. Gazette*.

"His history of France is worthy to figure with the works of his associates, the best of their day, Scott and Mackintosh."—*Monthly Mag.*

"For such a task Mr. Crowe is eminently qualified. At a glance, as it were, his eye takes in the theatre of centuries. His style is neat, clear, and pithy; and his power of condensation enables him to say much, and effectively, in a few words, to present a distinct and perfect picture in a narrowly circumscribed space."—*La Belle Assemblée*.

"The style is neat and condensed; the thoughts and conclusions sound and just. The necessary conciseness of the narrative is unaccompanied by any baldness; on the contrary, it is spirited and engaging."—*Balt. American*.

"To compress the history of a great nation, during a period of thirteen hundred years, into two volumes, and to preserve sufficient distinctness as well as interest in the narrative, to enable and induce the reader to possess himself clearly of all the leading incidents, is a task by no means easily executed. It has, nevertheless, been well accomplished in this instance."—*N. Y. American*.

"Written with spirit and taste."—*U. S. Gazette*.

"Could we but persuade our young friends to give these volumes a careful perusal, we should feel assured of their grateful acknowledgments of profit and pleasure."—*N. Y. Mirror*.

"At once concise and entertaining."—*Saturday Bulletin*.

THE HISTORY OF THE NETHERLANDS, to the Battle of Waterloo. By T. C. Grattan.

"It is but justice to Mr. Grattan, to say that he has executed his laborious task with much industry and proportionate effect. Undisfigured by pompous nothingness, and without any of the affectation of philosophical profundity, his style is simple, light, and fresh—perspicuous, smooth, and harmonious."—*La Belle Assemblée*.

"Never did work appear at a more fortunate period. The volume before us is a compressed but clear and impartial narrative."—*Lit. Gaz.*

"A long residence in the country, and a ready access to libraries and archives, have furnished Mr. Grattan with materials which he has arranged with skill, and out of which he has produced a most interesting volume."—*Gent. Mag.*

BIOGRAPHY OF BRITISH STATESMEN; containing the Lives of Sir Thomas More, Cardinal Wolsey, Archbishop Cranmer, and Lord Burleigh.

"A very delightful volume, and on a subject likely to increase in interest as it proceeds. * * * We cordially commend the work both for its design and execution."—*Land. Lit. Gazette*.

CABINET OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

Volumes published.

I. II. HISTORY OF THE SPANISH DISCOVERIES prior to the year 1520.

To be succeeded by

III. IV. V. HISTORY OF ANAHUAC, OR MEXICO, from its discovery to the present time. In 3 vols.

VI. VII. HISTORY OF PERU. In 2 vols.

VIII. IX. HISTORY OF BRAZIL. In 2 vols. &c. &c.

UNDER this comprehensive title, it is proposed to publish a General History of America, divided into *parts* making together a continuous whole; yet each, having an integral form, adapted for separate publication. Each portion will be brought down to the period at which it shall be written, and will contain a popular description of the geology, climate and productions, and the civil history of the country to which it relates.

No work of this general nature has been published in the English language. The work of Dr. Robertson is rather a philosophical essay on American history, than an historical narrative; and though originally designed to embrace the whole of the American continent, it remains unfinished. It is written also, with a bias unfavorable to America and its productions, is incorrect in many important particulars, and is too much abstracted for popular use.

This void in literature might have been properly filled by the writers of Spain, Portugal, France, or England, but has been supplied for Europe, in a measure, by an Italian, the Cavalier Campagnoni, of whose meritorious labor much use will be made in the proposed enterprise.

The volumes herewith presented, may be deemed introductory to the whole work, since they narrate the history of the discovery of the three great portions of America. In the prosecution of the subject, the existing political divisions will be pursued and connected with former ones, by proper explanations; and where due regard for unity does not forbid, the chronological order will be preserved. Thus, the next succeeding part of the work, now advanced in preparation, will contain the history of Anahuac, or Mexico: including its ancient annals, an account of its subjugation, and the policy of its conquerors, of its late revolutions, and of its present constituent states. In the same manner will be treated Central America, Peru, Chili, Bolivia, the United Provinces of La Plata, Brazil and Colombia. Due attention will also be given to the independent Indian nations of South America.

The history of the remainder of the country will be embraced by the following divisions:—1. Russian; 2. British; 3. Spanish; 4. French; 5. Danish; 6. Dutch America; and 7, the United States and their dependencies. In treating the last division, a separate volume will be appropriated to each State and Territory, the history of which may require it, and "*The History of the United States*" will be confined to the events of the Revolution and the operations of the general government.

A survey having been thus made of the whole Western Hemisphere, the concluding volume will contain the history of the Indian races, particularly those of the northern part of the continent, with a critical examination of the theories relating to the original peopling of America.

The general title of the work is sufficiently comprehensive to include a biography of distinguished Americans, and others connected with American history; and should the public support warrant it, "*An American Biography*" may also be published under it, in a cheap and popular form.

CABINET LIBRARY.

No. 1.—NARRATIVE OF THE LATE WAR IN GERMANY AND FRANCE. By the MARQUESS OF LONDON-DERRY. With a Map.

No. 2.—JOURNAL OF A NATURALIST, with plates.

No. 3.—AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF SIR WALTER SCOTT. With a portrait.

No. 4.—MEMOIRS OF SIR WALTER RALEGH. By Mrs. A. T. THOMSON.

No. 5.—LIFE OF BELISARIUS. By Lord MAHON.

No. 6.—MILITARY MEMOIRS OF THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON. By Capt. MOYLE SHERER. With a portrait.

No. 7.—LETTERS TO A YOUNG NATURALIST ON THE STUDY OF NATURE AND NATURAL THEOLOGY. By J. L. DRUMMOND, M. D. With numerous engravings.

IN PREPARATION.

LIFE OF PETRARCH. By THOMAS MOORE.

GLEANINGS IN NATURAL HISTORY, being a Companion to the Journal of a Naturalist.

"The Cabinet Library bids fair to be a series of great value, and is recommended to public and private libraries, to professional men, and miscellaneous readers generally. It is beautifully printed, and furnished at a price which will place it within the reach of all classes of society."—*American Traveller*.

"The series of instructive, and, in their original form, expensive works, which these enterprising publishers are now issuing under the title of the "Cabinet Library," is a fountain of useful, and almost universal knowledge; the advantages of which, in forming the opinions, tastes and manners of that portion of society, to which this varied information is yet new, cannot be too highly estimated."—*National Journal*.

"Messrs. Carey and Lea have commenced a series of publications under the above title, which are to appear monthly, and which seem likely, from the specimen before us, to acquire a high degree of popularity, and to afford a mass of various information and rich entertainment, at once eminently useful and strongly attractive. The mechanical execution is fine, the paper and typography excellent."—*Nashville Banner*.

MEMOIRS OF THE LIFE OF SIR WALTER RALEGH, with some Account of the Period in which he lived. By MRS. A. T. THOMSON. With a Portrait.

"Such is the outline of a life, which, in Mrs. Thomson's hands, is a mine of interest; from the first page to the last the attention is roused and sustained, and while we approve the manner, we still more applaud the spirit in which it is executed."—*Literary Gazette*.

CABINET LIBRARY.

JOURNAL OF A NATURALIST. With Plates.

—Plants, trees, and stones we note;
Birds, insects, beasts, and rural things.

"We again most strongly recommend this little unpretending volume to the attention of every lover of nature, and more particularly of our country readers. It will induce them, we are sure, to examine more closely than they have been accustomed to do, into the objects of animated nature, and such examination will prove one of the most innocent, and the most satisfactory sources of gratification and amusement. It is a book that ought to find its way into every rural drawing-room in the kingdom, and one that may safely be placed in every lady's boudoir, be her rank and station in life what they may."—*Quarterly Review*, No. LXXVIII.

"We think that there are few readers who will not be delighted (we are certain all will be instructed) by the 'Journal of a Naturalist.'"—*Monthly Review*.

"This is a most delightful book on the most delightful of all studies. We are acquainted with no previous work which bears any resemblance to this, except 'White's History of Selborne,' the most fascinating piece of rural writing and sound English philosophy that ever issued from the press."—*Athenaeum*.

"The author of the volume now before us, has produced one of the most charming volumes we remember to have seen for a long time."—*New Monthly Magazine*, June, 1829.

"A delightful volume—perhaps the most so—nor less instructive and amusing—given to Natural History since White's Selborne."—*Blackwood's Magazine*.

"The Journal of a Naturalist, being the second number of Carey and Lea's beautiful edition of the Cabinet Library, is the best treatise on subjects connected with this train of thought, that we have for a long time perused, and we are not at all surprised that it should have received so high and flattering encomiums from the English press generally."—*Boston Traveller*.

"Furnishing an interesting and familiar account of the various objects of animated nature, but calculated to afford both instruction and entertainment."—*Nashville Banner*.

"One of the most agreeable works of its kind in the language."—*Courier de la Louisiane*.

"It abounds with numerous and curious facts, pleasing illustrations of the secret operations and economy of nature, and satisfactory displays of the power, wisdom and goodness, of the great Creator."—*Philad. Album*.

THE MARQUESS OF LONDONDERRY'S NARRATIVE OF THE LATE WAR IN GERMANY AND FRANCE. With a Map.

"No history of the events to which it relates can be correct without reference to its statements."—*Literary Gazette*.

"The events detailed in this volume cannot fail to excite an intense interest."—*Dublin Literary Gazette*.

"The only connected and well authenticated account we have of the spirit-stirring scenes which preceded the fall of Napoleon. It introduces us into the cabinets and presence of the allied monarchs. We observe the secret policy of each individual: we see the course pursued by the wily Bernadotte, the temporizing Metternich, and the ambitious Alexander. The work deserves a place in every historical library."—*Globe*.

"We hail with pleasure the appearance of the first volume of the Cabinet Library." "The author had singular facilities for obtaining the materials of his work, and he has introduced us to the movements and measures of cabinets which have hitherto been hidden from the world."—*American Traveller*.

"It may be regarded as the most authentic of all the publications which profess to detail the events of the important campaigns, terminating with that which secured the capture of the French metropolis."—*Nat. Journal*.

"It is in fact the only authentic account of the memorable events to which it refers."—*Nashville Banner*.

"The work deserves a place in every library."—*Philadelphia Album*.

SCOTT AND COOPER.

BY SIR WALTER SCOTT.

COUNT ROBERT OF PARIS, a Tale of the Lower Empire.
By the Author of *Waverley*. In 3 vols.

"The reader will at once perceive that the subject, the characters and the scenes of action, could not have been better selected for the display of the various and unequalled powers of the author. All that is glorious in arts and splendour in arms—the glitter of armor, the pomp of war, and the splendor of chivalry—the gorgeous scenery of the Bosphorus—the ruins of Byzantium—the magnificence of the Grecian capital, and the richness and voluptuousness of the imperial court, will rise before the reader in a succession of beautiful and dazzling images."—*Commercial Advertiser*.

AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF SIR WALTER SCOTT. With a Portrait.

HISTORY OF SCOTLAND. In 2 vols.

"The History of Scotland, by Sir Walter Scott, we do not hesitate to declare, will be, if possible, more extensively read, than the most popular work of fiction, by the same prolific author, and for this obvious reason: it combines much of the brilliant coloring of the *Ivanhoe* pictures of by-gone manners; and all the graceful facility of style and picturesqueness of description of his other charming romances, with a minute fidelity to the facts of history, and a searching scrutiny into their authenticity and relative value, which might put to the blush Mr. Hume and other professed historians. Such is the magic charm of Sir Walter Scott's pen, it has only to touch the simplest incident of every-day life, and it starts up invested with all the interest of a scene of romance; and yet such is his fidelity to the text of nature, that the knights, and serfs, and collared fools with whom his inventive genius has peopled so many volumes, are regarded by us as not mere creations of fancy, but as real flesh and blood existences, with all the virtues, feelings and errors of common-place humanity."—*Lit. Gazette*.

TALES OF A GRANDFATHER, being a series from French History. By the Author of *WAVERLEY*.

BY MR. COOPER.

THE BRAVO. By the Author of the *SPY*, *PILOT*, &c. In 2 vols.

THE WATER-WITCH, OR THE SKIMMER OF THE SEAS.
In 2 vols.

"We have no hesitation in classing this among the most powerful of the romances of our countryman."—*U. States Gazette*.

"We could not break from the volumes, and may predict that they will excite the same interest in the minds of almost every reader. The concluding chapters produce intense emotion."—*National Gazette*.

New Editions of the following Works by the same Author.

NOTIONS OF THE AMERICANS, by a Travelling Bachelor,
2 vols. 12mo.

THE WEPT OF WISH-TON-WISH, 2 vols. 12mo.

THE RED ROVER, 2 vols. 12mo.

THE SPY, 2 vols. 12mo.

THE PIONEERS, 2 vols. 12mo.

THE PILOT, a Tale of the Sea, 2 vols. 12mo.

LIONEL LINCOLN, OR THE LEAGUER OF BOSTON, 2 vols.

THE LAST OF THE MOHICANS, 2 vols. 12mo.

THE PRAIRIE, 2 vols. 12mo.

MISCELLANEOUS.

A MEMOIR OF SEBASTIAN CABOT, with a Review of the History of Maritime Discovery. Illustrated by Documents from the Rolls, now first published.

"Put forth in the most unpretending manner, and without a name, this work is of paramount importance to the subjects of which it treats."—*Lit. Gazette*. "The author has corrected many grave errors, and in general given us a clearer insight into transactions of considerable national interest."—*Id.* "Will it not," says the author, with just astonishment, "be deemed almost incredible, that the very instrument in the Records of England, which recites the Great Discovery, and plainly contemplates a scheme of Colonization, should, up to this moment, have been treated by her own writers as that which first gave permission to go forth and explore?"—*Id.* "We must return to investigate several collateral matters which we think deserving of more space than we can this week bestow. Meanwhile we recommend the work as one of great value and interest."—*Id.*

"The general reader, as well as the navigator and the curious, will derive pleasure and information from this well-written production."—*Courier*.

"A specimen of honest inquiry. It is quite frightful to think of the number of the inaccuracies it exposes: we shall cease to have confidence in books." "The investigation of truth is not the fashion of these times. But every sincere inquirer after historical accuracy ought to purchase the book as a curiosity: more false assertions and inaccurate statements were never exposed in the same compass. It has given us a lesson we shall never forget, and hope to profit by."—*Spect.*

HISTORY OF THE NORTHMEN, OR NORMANS AND DANES; from the earliest times to the Conquest of England by William of Normandy. By Henry Wheaton, Member of the Scandinavian and Icelandic Literary Societies of Copenhagen.

This work embraces the great leading features of Scandinavian history, commencing with the heroic age, and advancing from the earliest dawn of civilization to the introduction of Christianity into the North—its long and bloody strife with Paganism—the discovery and colonization of Iceland, Greenland, and North America, by the Norwegian navigators, before the time of Columbus—the military and maritime expeditions of the Northmen—their early intercourse of commerce and war with Constantinople and the Eastern empire—the establishment of a Norman state in France, under Rollo, and the subjugation of England, first by the Danes, under Canute the Great, and subsequently by the Normans, under Duke William, the founder of the English monarchy. It also contains an account of the mythology and literature of the ancient North—the Icelandic language prevailing all over the Scandinavian countries until the formation of the present living tongues of Sweden and Denmark—an analysis of the Eddas, Sagas, and various chronicles and songs relating to the Northern deities and heroes, constituting the original materials from which the work has been principally composed. It is intended to illustrate the history of France and England during the middle ages, and at the same time to serve as an introduction to the modern history of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.

AN HISTORICAL INQUIRY INTO THE PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION OF THE PRECIOUS METALS, from the Earliest Ages, and into the Influence of their Increase or Diminution on the Prices of Commodities. By William Jacob, Esq. F. R. S. In 8vo.

"Mr. Jacob's Historical Inquiry into the Production and Consumption of the Precious Metals is one of the most curious and important works which has lately issued from the press. The influence of the precious metals on the industry of mankind is acknowledged to be great; though, perhaps, the notions respecting the precise mode of its operation were obscure, and undoubtedly the history of its effects had never been traced with accuracy and ingenuity. Mr. Huskisson, who had maintained a friendship with Mr. Jacob for more than five-and-twenty years, first put the author on the investigation; it is one of the minor obligations which the country owes to that enlightened statesman."—*Spectator*.

"It was written at the suggestion of the late Mr. Huskisson, and displays the fruits of much industry and research, guided by a sound judgment, and embodying more learning than is usually brought to bear on statistical or economical subjects. We recommend the book to general attention."—*Times*.

EDUCATION.

LESSONS ON THINGS, intended to improve Children in the Practice of Observation, Reflection, and Description, on the System of **PESTALOZZI**, edited by **JOHN FROST, A. M.**

The publishers request the attention of Teachers, School Committees, and all who are desirous of improving the methods of instruction, to this work, which is on a plan hitherto unattempted by any school-book in this country, and which has been attended with extraordinary success in England.

The following remarks on the work are extracted from the "Quarterly Journal of Education."

"This little volume is a 'corrected and re-corrected' edition of lessons actually given to children, and, therefore, possesses a value to which no book made in the closet can lay claim, being the result of actual experiment. The work consists of a number of lessons, divided into five series; beginning with subjects the most easy and elementary, it gradually increases in difficulty, each successive step being adapted to the mind of the child as it acquires fresh stores of knowledge.

"Every part of these lessons is interesting to the child, both on account of the active operation into which his own mind is necessarily called by the manner in which the lessons are given; and also by the attractive nature of many of the materials which form the subject of the lessons. In the first and most elementary series, the pupil is *simply taught* to make a right use of his organs of sense, and to exercise his judgment so far only as relates to the objects about him; and accordingly the matter brought before him at this stage, is such that its obvious properties can be discovered and described by a child who has acquired a tolerable knowledge of his mother tongue."

GREEK AND ENGLISH LEXICON. By **D. DONNEGAN.**
Abridged for the use of Schools. In 1 vol. royal 18mo. containing above 600 pages.

This work is printing on a handsome distinct type, and will contain as much matter as many of the larger lexicons; but owing to the form in which it is printed, will be sold at such price as to be within the reach of all students. It will offer more advantages to the young student than any other lexicon now in use. The vocabulary is more extensive and complete—comprising not only words found in the classics, but also such as are found in the writings of Hippocrates and the Greek Physicians. The meanings attached to words by the several writers are also given.

Words are given in alphabetical order in every poetical and dialectic variety.

The conjugation of verbs and flexion of nouns are more complete than in other lexicons;—the meanings of words fuller and more correct—there being first a primary and then a secondary meaning, each distinguished from the metaphorical and idiomatical. Phrases are also given when they note any peculiarity in signification. The etymology of words is only omitted where it is confused or disputed. There is nothing left out which the young student would find necessary in studying the Classics, and which would enable him to understand the true meaning of a word. In short, in this work the essential advantages of a good Dictionary are combined with those of a good Grammar—advantages not found in any Greek and English Lexicon now used.

WASHINGTON IRVING.

VOYAGES AND ADVENTURES OF THE COMPANIONS OF COLUMBUS. By WASHINGTON IRVING, Author of the Life of Columbus, &c. 1 vol. 8vo.

"Of the main work we may repeat that it possesses the value of important history and the magnetism of romantic adventure. It sustains in every respect the reputation of Irving." "We may hope that the gifted author will treat in like manner the enterprises and exploits of Pizarro and Cortes; and thus complete a series of elegant recitals, which will contribute to the especial gratification of Americans, and form an imperishable fund of delightful instruction for all ages and countries."—*Nat. Gazette.*

"As he leads us from one savage tribe to another, as he paints successive scenes of heroism, perseverance and self-denial, as he wanders among the magnificent scenes of nature, as he relates with scrupulous fidelity the errors, and the crimes, even of those whose lives are for the most part marked with traits to command admiration, and perhaps esteem—everywhere we find him the same, undeviating, but beautiful moralist, gathering from every incident some lesson to present in striking language to the reason and the heart."—*Am. Quarterly Review.*

"This is a delightful volume; for the preface truly says that the expeditions narrated and springing out of the voyages of Columbus may be compared with attempts of adventurous knights-errant to achieve the enterprises left unfinished by some illustrious predecessors. Washington Irving's name is a pledge how well their stories will be told: and we only regret that we must of necessity defer our extracts for a week."—*London Lit. Gazette.*

A CHRONICLE OF THE CONQUEST OF GRENADA. By WASHINGTON IRVING, Esq. In 2 vols.

"On the whole, this work will sustain the high fame of Washington Irving. It fills a blank in the historical library which ought not to have remained so long a blank. The language throughout is at once chaste and animated; and the narrative may be said, like Spenser's Fairy Queen, to present one long gallery of splendid pictures."—*London Lit. Gazette.*

"Collecting his materials from various historians, and adopting in some degree the tone and manner of a monkish chronicler, he has embodied them in a narrative which in manner reminds us of the rich and storied pages of Froissart. He dwells on the feats of chivalry performed by the Christian Knights, with all the ardor which might be expected from a priest, who mixed, according to the usage of the times, not only in the palaces of courtly nobles, and their gay festivals, as an honored and welcome guest, but who was their companion in the camp, and their spiritual and indeed bodily comforter and assistant in the field of battle."—*Am. Quarterly Review.*

New Editions of the following Works by the same Author.

THE SKETCH BOOK, 2 vols. 12mo.

KNICKERBOCKER'S HISTORY OF NEW YORK, revised and corrected. 2 vols.

BRACEBRIDGE HALL, OR THE HUMORISTS, 2 vols. 12mo.

TALES OF A TRAVELLER, 2 vols. 12mo.

CLASSICAL LITERATURE.

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF THE GREEK CLASSIC POETS, for the use of Young Persons at School or College.

Contents.—General Introduction; Homeric Questions; Life of Homer; Iliad; Odyssey; Margites; Batrachomyomachia; Hymns; Hesiod. By Henry Nelson Coleridge.

"We have been highly pleased with this little volume. This work supplies a want which we have often painfully felt, and affords a manual which we should gladly see placed in the hands of every embryo under-graduate. We look forward to the next portion of this work with very eager and impatient expectation."—*British Critic*.

"Mr. Coleridge's work not only deserves the praise of clear, eloquent and scholar-like exposition of the preliminary matter, which is necessary in order to understand and enter into the character of the great Poet of antiquity; but it has likewise the more rare merit of being admirably adapted for its acknowledged purpose. It is written in that fresh and ardent spirit, which to the congenial mind of youth, will convey instruction in the most effective manner, by awakening the desire of it; and by enlisting the lively and buoyant feelings in the cause of useful and improving study; while, by its pregnant brevity, it is more likely to stimulate than to supersede more profound and extensive research. If then, as it is avowedly intended for the use of the younger readers of Homer, and, as it is impossible not to discover, with a more particular view to the great school to which the author owes his education, we shall be much mistaken if it does not become as popular as it will be useful in that celebrated establishment."—*Quarterly Review*.

"We sincerely hope that Mr. Coleridge will favor us with a continuation of this work, which he promises."—*Gent. Mag.*

"The author of this elegant volume has collected a vast mass of valuable information. To the higher classes of the public schools, and young men of universities, this volume will be especially valuable; as it will afford an agreeable relief of light reading to more grave studies, at once instructive and entertaining."—*Wesleyan Methodist Magazine*.

ATLAS OF ANCIENT GEOGRAPHY, consisting of 21 Colored Maps, with a complete Accentuated Index. By SAMUEL BUTLER, D. D., F. R. S. &c. Archdeacon of Derby.

By the same Author.

GEOGRAPHIA CLASSICA: a Sketch of Ancient Geography, for the Use of Schools. In 8vo.

Extract of a Letter from Professor Stuart of Andover.

"I have used Butler's Atlas Classica for 12 or 14 years, and prefer it on the score of convenience and correctness to any atlas within the compass of my knowledge. It is evidently a work of much care and taste, and most happily adapted to classical readers and indeed all others, who consult the history of past ages. I have long cherished a strong desire to see the work brought forward in this country, and I am exceedingly gratified that you have carried through this undertaking. The beautiful manner in which the specimen is executed that you have sent me does great credit to engravers and publishers. It cannot be that our schools and colleges will fail to adopt this work, and bring it into very general circulation. I know of none which in all respects would supply its place."

"The abridged but classical and excellent work of Butler, on Ancient Geography, which you are printing as an accompaniment to the maps, I consider one of the most attractive works of the kind, especially for young persons studying the classics, that has come under my notice. I wish you the most ample success in these highly useful publications."

FRENCH AND SPANISH.

BY A. BOLMAR.

A COLLECTION OF COLLOQUIAL PHRASES on every Topic necessary to maintain Conversation, arranged under different heads, with numerous remarks on the peculiar pronunciation and use of various words—the whole so disposed as considerably to facilitate the acquisition of a correct pronunciation of the French. By A. BOLMAR. One vol. 18mo.

A SELECTION OF ONE HUNDRED PERRIN'S FABLES, accompanied by a Key, containing the text, a literal and free translation, arranged in such a manner as to point out the difference between the French and the English idiom, also a figured pronunciation of the French, according to the best French works extant on the subject; the whole preceded by a short treatise on the sounds of the French language, compared with those of the English.

LES AVENTURES DE TELEMAQUE PAR FENELON, accompanied by a Key to the first eight books; containing like the Fables—the Text—a Literal—and Free Translation; intended as a Sequel to the Fables.

The expression 'figured pronunciation,' is above employed to express that the words in the Key to the French Fables are spelt and divided as they are pronounced. It is what WALKER has done in his Critical Pronouncing Dictionary; for instance, he indicates the pronunciation of the word enough, by dividing and spelling it thus, e-nuf. In the same manner I indicate the pronunciation of the word complaint thus, kon-tè. As the understanding of the figured pronunciation of WALKER requires the student to be acquainted with the primitive sounds of the English vowels, he must likewise, before he can understand the figured pronunciation of the French, make himself acquainted with the 30 primitive sounds of the French vowels. This any intelligent person can get from a native, or from anybody who reads French well, in a few hours.

À COMPLETE TREATISE ON THE GENDERS OF FRENCH NOUNS; in a small pamphlet of fourteen pages.

This little work, which is the most complete of the kind, is the fruit of great labor, and will prove of immense service to every learner.

ALL THE FRENCH VERBS, BOTH REGULAR AND IRREGULAR, in a small volume.

The verbs *être* to be, *avoir* to have, *parler* to speak, *finir* to finish, *recevoir* to receive, *vendre* to sell, *se lever* to rise, *se bien porter* to be well, *s'en aller* to go away, are here all conjugated through—*affirmatively—negatively—interrogatively—and negatively and interrogatively*—an arrangement which will greatly facilitate the scholar in his learning the French verbs, and which will save the master the trouble of explaining over and over again what may be much more easily learned from books, thus leaving him more time to give his pupil, during the lesson, that instruction which cannot be found in books, but which must be learned from a master.

NEUMAN'S SPANISH AND ENGLISH DICTIONARY.
New Edition, in one vol. 16mo.

MECHANICS, MANUFACTURES, &c.

A PRACTICAL TREATISE ON RAIL-ROADS, AND INTERIOR COMMUNICATION IN GENERAL—containing an account of the performances of the different Locomotive Engines at, and subsequent to, the Liverpool Contest; upwards of two hundred and sixty Experiments, with Tables of the comparative value of Canals and Rail-roads, and the power of the present Locomotive Engines. By NICHOLAS WOOD, Colliery Viewer, Member of the Institution of Civil Engineers, &c. 8vo. With plates.

"In this, the able author has brought up his treatise to the date of the latest improvements in this nationally important plan. We consider the volume to be one of great general interest."—*Lit. Gaz.*

"We must, in justice, refer the reader to the work itself, strongly assuring him that, whether he be a man of science, or one totally unacquainted with its technical difficulties, he will here receive instruction and pleasure, in a degree which we have seldom seen united before."—*Monthly Review.*

REPORTS ON LOCOMOTIVE AND FIXED ENGINES. By J. STEPHENSON and J. WALKER, Civil Engineers. With an Account of the Liverpool and Manchester Rail-road, by H. BOOTH. In 8vo. With plates.

MILLWRIGHT AND MILLER'S GUIDE. By OLIVER EVANS. New Edition, with additions and corrections, by the Professor of Mechanics in the Franklin Institute of Pennsylvania, and a description of an improved Merchant Flour-Mill, with engravings, by C. & O. Evans, Engineers.

THE NATURE AND PROPERTIES OF THE SUGAR-CANE, with Practical Directions for its Culture, and the Manufacture of its various Products; detailing the improved Methods of Extracting, Boiling, Refining, and Distilling; also descriptions of the Best Machinery, and useful Directions for the general Management of Estates. By GEORGE RICHARDSON PORTER.

"This volume contains a valuable mass of scientific and practical information, and is, indeed, a compendium of everything interesting relative to colonial agriculture and Manufacture."—*Intelligence.*

"We can altogether recommend this volume as a most valuable addition to the library of the home West India merchant, as well as that of the resident planter."—*Lit. Gazette.*

ELEMENTS OF MECHANICS. By JAMES RENWICK, Esq. Professor of Natural and Experimental Philosophy, Columbia College, N. Y. In 8vo. with numerous engravings.

"We think this decidedly the best treatise on Mechanics, which has issued from the American press, that we have seen; one, too, that is alike creditable to the writer, and to the state of science in this country."—*Am. Quar. Review.*

TREATISE ON CLOCK AND WATCH-MAKING, Theoretical and Practical, by THOMAS REID, Edinburgh Honorary Member of the Worshipful Company of Clock-Makers, London. Royal 8vo. Illustrated by numerous plates.

Natural History and Philosophy.

GEOLOGICAL MANUAL, by H. T. DE LA BECHE, F. R. S., F. G. S., Mem. Geol. Soc. of France. In 8vo. With 104 Wood Cuts.

"A work of first-rate importance in the science to which it relates, and which must henceforth take its place in the Library of every student in Geology."—*Phil. Magazine*.

ELEMENTS OF PHYSICS, OR NATURAL PHILOSOPHY, GENERAL AND MEDICAL, explained independently of **TECHNICAL MATHEMATICS**, and containing New Disquisitions and Practical Suggestions. By NEILL ARNOTT, M. D. Second American from the fourth London edition, with Additions by ISAAC HAYS, M. D.

"Dr. Arnott's work has done for Physics as much as Locke's Essay did for the science of mind."—*London University Magazine*.

"We may venture to predict that it will not be surpassed."—*Times*.

"Dr. A. has not done less for Physics than Blackstone did for the Law."—*Morning Herald*.

"Dr. A. has made Natural Philosophy as attractive as Buffon made Natural History."—*French Critic*.

"A work of the highest class among the productions of mind."—*Courier*.

"We regard the style and manner as quite admirable."—*Morning Chronicle*.

"As interesting as novel-reading."—*Athenaeum*.

"Never did philosophic hand wield a pen more calculated to win men to be wise and good."—*Edinburgh Observer*.

"Of this valuable, or we might say, invaluable work, a second edition has been speedily demanded by the public voice."—*Lit. Gaz.*

ARNOTT'S ELEMENTS OF PHYSICS. Vol. II. Part I.
Containing Light and Heat.

"Dr. Arnott's previous volume has been so well received, that it has almost banished all the flimsy productions called popular, which falsely pretend to strip science of its mysterious and repulsive aspect, and to exhibit a holiday apparel. The success of such a work shows most clearly that it is plain but sound knowledge which the public want."—*Monthly Review*.

AMERICAN ORNITHOLOGY, OR NATURAL HISTORY OF BIRDS, INHABITING THE UNITED STATES. By CHARLES LUCIEN BONAPARTE; designed as a continuation of Wilson's Ornithology, Vols. I. II. and III.

* * Gentlemen who possess Wilson, and are desirous of rendering the work complete, are informed that the edition of this work is very small, and that but a very limited number of copies remain unsold. Vol. IV. in the Press.

A DISCOURSE ON THE REVOLUTIONS OF THE SURFACE OF THE GLOBE AND THE CHANGES THEREBY PRODUCED IN THE ANIMAL KINGDOM. By BARON G. CUVIER. Translated from the French, with Illustrations and a Glossary. In 12mo. With Plates.

"One of the most scientific and important, yet plain and lucid works, which adorn the age."—Here is vast aid to the reader interested in the study of nature, and the lights which reason and investigation have thrown upon the formation of the universe."—*New Monthly Magazine*.

CHEMISTRY.

THE CHEMISTRY OF THE ARTS, on the basis of Gray's Operative Chemist, being an Exhibition of the Arts and Manufactures dependant on Chemical Principles, with numerous Engravings, by ARTHUR L. PORTER, M. D. late Professor of Chemistry, &c. in the University of Vermont. In 8vo. With numerous Plates.

The popular and valuable English work of Mr. Gray, which forms the groundwork of the present volume, was published in London in 1829, and designed to exhibit a systematic and practical view of the numerous Arts and Manufactures which involve the application of Chemical Science. The author himself, a skilful, manufacturing, as well as an able, scientific chemist, enjoying the multiplied advantages afforded by the metropolis of the greatest manufacturing nation on earth, was eminently qualified for so arduous an undertaking, and the popularity of the work in England, as well as its intrinsic merits, attest the fidelity and success with which it has been executed. In the work now offered to the American public, the practical character of the Operative Chemist has been preserved, and much extended by the addition of a great variety of original matter, by numerous corrections of the original text, and the adaptation of the whole to the state and wants of the Arts and Manufactures of the United States. Among the most considerable additions will be found full and extended treatises on the Bleaching of Cotton and Linen, on the various branches of Calico Printing, on the Manufacture of the Chloride of Lime, or Bleaching Powder, and numerous Staple Articles used in the Arts of Dying, Calico Printing, and various other processes of Manufacture, such as the Salts of Tin, Lead, Manganese, and Antimony; the most recent Improvements on the Manufacture of the Muriatic, Nitric, and Sulphuric Acids, the Chromates of Potash, the latest information on the comparative Value of Different Varieties of Fuel, on the Construction of Stoves, Fire-Places, and Stoving Rooms, on the Ventilation of Apartments, &c. &c. The leading object has been to improve and extend the practical character of the Operative Chemist, and to supply, as the publishers flatter themselves, a deficiency which is felt by every artist and manufacturer, whose processes involve the principles of chemical science, the want of a Systematic Work which should embody the most recent improvements in the chemical arts and manufactures, whether derived from the researches of scientific men, or the experiments and observations of the operative manufacturer and artisans themselves.

CHEMICAL MANIPULATION. Instruction to Students on the Methods of performing Experiments of Demonstration or Research, with accuracy and success. By MICHAEL FARADAY, F. R. S. First American, from the second London edition, with Additions by J. K. MITCHELL, M. D.

"After a very careful perusal of this work, we strenuously recommend it, as containing the most complete and excellent instructions for conducting chemical experiments. There are few persons, however great their experience, who may not gain information in many important particulars; and for ourselves, we beg most unequivocally to acknowledge that we have acquired many new and important hints on subjects of even every-day occurrence."—*Philosophical Mag.*

"A work hitherto exceedingly wanted in the laboratory, equally useful to the proficient and to the student, and eminently creditable to the industry and skill of the author, and to the school whence it emanates."—*Journal of Science and Arts.*

ANATOMY.

DIRECTIONS FOR MAKING ANATOMICAL PREPARATIONS, formed on the basis of Pole, Marjolin and Breschet, and including the new method of Mr. Swan, by **USHER PARSONS**, M. D. Professor of Anatomy and Surgery. In 1 Vol. 8vo. with plates.

A TREATISE ON PATHOLOGICAL ANATOMY. By **WILLIAM E. HORNER**, M. D. Adj. Prof. of Anatomy in the University of Pennsylvania.

"We can conscientiously commend it to the members of the profession, as a satisfactory, interesting, and instructive view of the subjects discussed, and as well adapted to aid them in forming a correct appreciation of the diseased conditions they are called on to relieve."—*American Journal of the Medical Science*, No. 9.

By the same Author.

A TREATISE ON SPECIAL AND GENERAL ANATOMY. Second edition, revised and corrected, in 2 Vols. 8vo.

LESSONS IN PRACTICAL ANATOMY, for the use of Dissectors. 2d edition, in 1 Vol. 8vo.

SYSTEM OF ANATOMY, for the use of Students of Medicine. By **CASPAB WISTAR**. Fifth edition, revised and corrected, by **W. E. HORNER**, Adjunct Professor of Anatomy in the University of Pennsylvania. In 2 Vols. 8vo.

ELEMENTS OF GENERAL ANATOMY, or a description of the Organs comprising the Human Body. By **P. A. BECLARD**, Professor of Anatomy to the Faculty of Medicine at Paris. Translated by **J. TOGNO**.

TREATISE ON SURGICAL ANATOMY. By **ABRAHAM COLLES**, Professor of Anatomy and Surgery, in the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, &c. Second American edition, with notes by **J. P. HOPKINSON**, Demonstrator of Anatomy in the University of Pennsylvania, &c. &c.

A TREATISE ON PATHOLOGICAL ANATOMY. By **E. GEDDINGS**, M. D. Professor of Anatomy in the Medical College of South Carolina. In 2 vols. 8vo. (In the press.)

ELEMENTS OF MYOLOGY. By **E. GEDDINGS**, M. D. illustrated by a series of beautiful Engravings of the Muscles of the Human Body, on a plan heretofore unknown in this country. *In the press.*

This work, in addition to an ample and accurate description of the general and special anatomy of the muscular system, will comprise illustrations of the subject from comparative anatomy and physiology, with an account of the irregularities, variations and anomalies, observed by the various ancient and modern anatomists, down to the present time.

MEDICINE.

AMERICAN JOURNAL OF THE MEDICAL SCIENCES.

Published Quarterly.

And supported by the most distinguished Physicians in the United States, among which are Professors Bigelow, Channing, Chapman, Coxe, De Butts, Dewees, Dickson, Dudley, Francis, Gibson, Hare, Henderson, Horner, Howack, Jackson, Macneven, Mott, Mussey, Physiçk, Potter, Sewall, Warren, and Worthington; Drs. Daniell, Drake, Emerson, Fearn, Geddings, Griffith, Hale, Hays, Hayward, Ives, Jackson, Moultrie, Ware, and Wright. It is published punctually on the first of November, February, May, and August. Each No. contains about 280 large 8vo. pages, and one or more plates—being a greater amount of matter than is furnished by any other Medical Journal in the United States. Price \$5 per annum.

The following Extracts show the estimation in which this Journal is held in Europe:—

"Several of the American Journals are before us. * * * * Of these the American Journal of the Medical Sciences is by far the better periodical; it is, indeed, the best of the trans-atlantic medical publications; and, to make a comparison nearer home, is in most respects superior to the great majority of European works of the same description."—*The Lancet*, Jan. 1831.

"We need scarcely refer our esteemed and highly eminent cotemporary, [*The American Journal of the Medical Sciences*], from whom we quote, to our critical remarks on the opinions of our own countrymen, or to the principles which influence us in the discharge of our editorial duties." "Our copious extracts from his unequalled publication, unnoticing multitudes of others which come before us, are the best proof of the esteem which we entertain for his talents and abilities."—*London Medical and Surgical Journal*, March, 1830.

"The American Journal of the Medical Sciences is one of the most complete and best edited of the numerous periodical publications of the United States."—*Bulletin des Sciences Medicales*, Tom. XIV.

PATHOLOGICAL AND PRACTICAL RESEARCHES ON DISEASES OF THE BRAIN AND SPINAL CORD. By JOHN ABERCROMBIE, M. D.

"We have here a work of authority, and one which does credit to the author and his country."—*North Amer. Med. and Surg. Journal*.

By the same Author.

PATHOLOGICAL AND PRACTICAL RESEARCHES ON DISEASES OF THE STOMACH, THE INTESTINAL CANAL, THE LIVER, AND OTHER VISCERA OF THE ABDOMEN.

"We have now closed a very long review of a very valuable work, and although we have endeavored to condense into our pages a great mass of important matter, we feel that our author has not yet received justice."—*Medico-Chirurgical Review*.

A RATIONAL EXPOSITION OF THE PHYSICAL SIGNS OF DISEASES OF THE LUNGS AND PLEURA; Illustrating their Pathology and facilitating their Diagnosis. By CHARLES J. WILLIAMS, M. D. In 8vo. with plates.

"If we are not greatly mistaken, it will lead to a better understanding, and a more correct estimate of the value of auscultation, than any thing that has yet appeared."—*Am. Med. Journal*.

MANUAL OF THE PHYSIOLOGY OF MAN; or a concise Description of the Phenomena of his Organization. By P. HUTIN. Translated from the French, with Notes by J. TIGNO. In 12mo.

MEDICINE.

THE PRACTICE OF PHYSIC. By W. P. DEWEES, M. D. Adjunct Professor of Midwifery, in the University of Pennsylvania, 2 Vols. 8vo.

"We have no hesitation in recommending it as decidedly one of the best systems of medicine extant. The tenor of the work in general reflects the highest honor on Dr. Dewees's talents, industry, and capacity for the execution of the arduous task which he had undertaken. It is one of the most able and satisfactory works which modern times have produced, and will be a standard authority."—*London Med. and Surg. Journal*, Aug. 1830.

DEWEES ON THE DISEASES OF CHILDREN. 4th ed. In 8vo.

The objects of this work are, 1st, to teach those who have the charge of children, either as parent or guardian, the most approved methods of securing and improving their physical powers. This is attempted by pointing out the duties which the parent or the guardian owes for this purpose, to this interesting, but helpless class of beings, and the manner by which their duties shall be fulfilled. And 2d, to render available a long experience to these objects of our affection when they become diseased. In attempting this, the author has avoided as much as possible, "technicality;" and has given, if he does not flatter himself too much, to each disease of which he treats, its appropriate and designating characters, with a fidelity that will prevent any two being confounded together, with the best mode of treating them, that either his own experience or that of others has suggested.

DEWEES ON THE DISEASES OF FEMALES. 3d edition, with Additions. In 8vo.

A COMPENDIOUS SYSTEM OF MIDWIFERY; chiefly designed to facilitate the Inquiries of those who may be pursuing this Branch of Study. In 8vo. with 13 Plates. 5th edition, corrected and enlarged.

THE ELEMENTS OF THERAPEUTICS AND MATERIA MEDICA. By N. CHAPMAN, M. D. 2 vols. 8vo. 5th edition, corrected and revised.

MANUAL OF PATHOLOGY: containing the Symptoms, Diagnosis, and Morbid Character of Diseases, &c. By L. MARTINET. Translated, with Notes and Additions, by JONES QUAIN. Second American Edition, 12mo.

"We strongly recommend M. Martinet's Manual to the profession, and especially to students; if the latter wish to study diseases to advantage, they should always have it at hand, both when at the bedside of the patient, and when making post mortem examinations."—*American Journal of the Medical Sciences*, No. 1.

CLINICAL ILLUSTRATIONS OF FEVER, comprising a Report of the Cases treated at the London Fever Hospital in 1828-29, by Alexander Tweedie, M. D., Member of the Royal College of Physicians of London, &c. 1 vol. 8vo.

"In short, the present work, concise, unostentatious as it is, would have led us to think that Dr. Tweedie was a man of clear judgment, unfettered by attachment to any fashionable hypothesis, that he was an energetic but judicious practitioner, and that, if he did not dazzle his readers with the brilliancy of theoretical speculations he would command their assent to the solidity of his didactic precepts."—*Med. Chir. Journal*.

PHYSIOLOGICAL MEDICINE.

HISTORY OF CHRONIC PHLEGMASÆ, OR INFLAMMATIONS, founded on Clinical Experience and Pathological Anatomy, exhibiting a View of the different Varieties and Complications of these Diseases, with their various Methods of Treatment. By F. J. V. BROUSSAIS, M. D. Translated from the French of the fourth edition, by ISAAC HAYS, M. D. and R. EGLESFELD GRIFFITH, M. D. Members of the American Philosophical Society, of the Academy of Natural Science, Honorary Members of the Philadelphia Medical Society, &c. &c. In 2 vols. 8vo.

EXAMINATION OF MEDICAL DOCTRINES AND SYSTEMS OF NOSOLOGY, preceded by Propositions containing the Substance of Physiological Medicine, by J. F. V. BROUSSAIS, Officer of the Royal Order of the Legion of Honor; Chief Physician and First Professor in the Military Hospital for Instruction at Paris, &c. Third edition. Translated from the French, by ISAAC HAYS, M. D. and R. E. GRIFFITH, M. D. In 2 vols. 8vo. *In the press.*

A TREATISE ON PHYSIOLOGY, Applied to PATHOLOGY. By F. J. V. BROUSSAIS, M. D. Translated from the French, by Drs. BELL and LA ROCHE. 8vo. Third American edition, with additions.

"We cannot too strongly recommend the present work to the attention of our readers, and indeed of all those who wish to study physiology as it ought to be studied, in its application to the science of disease." "We may safely say that he has accomplished his task in a most masterly manner, and thus established his reputation as a most excellent physiologist and profound pathologist."—*North American Med. and Surg. Journ.* Jan. 1827.

THE PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE OF MEDICINE. By SAMUEL JACKSON, M. D. Adjunct Professor of Medicine in the University of Pennsylvania. 8vo.

THE PRACTICE OF MEDICINE, upon the Principles of the Physiological Doctrine. By J. G. COSTER, M. D. Translated from the French.

AN EPITOME OF THE PHYSIOLOGY, GENERAL ANATOMY, AND PATHOLOGY OF BICHAT. By THOMAS HENDERSON, M. D. Professor of the Theory and Practice of Medicine in Columbia College, Washington City. 8vo.

"The Epitome of Dr. Henderson ought and must find a place in the library of every physician desirous of useful knowledge for himself, or of being instrumental in imparting it to others, whose studies he is expected to superintend."—*N. A. Med. and Surg. Journ.* No. 15.

A TREATISE ON FEVER, considered in the spirit of the new medical Doctrine. By J. B. BOISSEAU. Translated from the French. *In the Press.*

MEDICINE AND SURGERY.

A TREATISE ON FEVER. By **SOUTHWOOD SMITH, M. D.**, Physician to the London Fever Hospital.

"No work has been more lauded by the Reviews than the Treatise on Fevers, by Southwood Smith. Dr. Johnson, the editor of the *Medico-Chirurgical Review*, says, 'It is the best we have ever perused on the subject of fever, and in our conscience, we believe it the best that ever flowed from the pen of physician in any age or in any country.'"—*Am. Med. Journ.*

AN ESSAY ON REMITTENT AND INTERMITTENT DISEASES, including generically Marsh Fever and Neuralgia—comprising under the former, various Anomalies, Obscurities, and Consequences, and under a new systematic View of the latter, treating of Tic Douloureux, Sciatica, Headache, Ophthalmia, Toothache, Palsy, and many other Modes and Consequences of this generic Disease; by **JOHN MACCULLOCH, M. D.**, F. R. S. &c. &c.

"In rendering Dr. Macculloch's work more accessible to the profession, we are conscious that we are doing the state some service."—*Med. Chir. Review*.

"We most strongly recommend Dr. Macculloch's treatise to the attention of our medical brethren, as presenting a most valuable mass of information, on a most important subject."—*N. A. Med. and Surg. Journal*.

A PRACTICAL SYNOPSIS OF CUTANEOUS DISEASES, from the most celebrated Authors, and particularly from Documents afforded by the Clinical Lectures of Dr. Bielt, Physician to the Hospital of St. Louis, Paris. By **A. CARMAN, M. D.** and **H. E. SCHEDEL, M. D.**

"We can safely recommend this work to the attention of practitioners as containing much practical information, not only on the treatment, but also on the causes of cutaneous affections, as being in fact the best treatise on diseases of the skin that has ever appeared."—*American Journal of the Medical Sciences*, No. 5.

SURGICAL MEMOIRS OF THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN.

Translated from the French of Baron **LARREY**. *Nearly ready.*

LECTURES ON INFLAMMATION, exhibiting a view of the General Doctrines, Pathological and Practical, of Medical Surgery. By **JOHN THOMPSON, M. D.**, F. R. S. E. Second American edition.

THE INSTITUTES AND PRACTICE OF SURGERY; being the Outlines of a Course of Lectures. By **W. GIBSON, M. D.** Professor of Surgery in the University of Pennsylvania. 3d edition, revised, corrected, and enlarged. In 2 vols. 8vo.

PRINCIPLES OF MILITARY SURGERY, comprising Observations on the Arrangements, Police, and Practice of Hospitals, and on the History, Treatment, and Anomalies of Variola and Syphilis; illustrated with cases and dissections. By **JOHN HENNEN, M. D.**, F. R. S. E. Inspector of Military Hospitals—first American from the third London edition, with the Life of the Author, by his son, **DR. JOHN HENNEN**.

"The value of Dr. Hennen's work is too well appreciated to need any praise of ours. We were only required then, to bring the third edition before the notice of our readers; and having done this, we shall merely add, that the volume merits a place in every library, and that no military surgeon ought to be without it."—*Medical Gazette*.

MEDICINE, SURGERY, &c. . .

SURGICAL MEMOIRS OF THE CAMPAIGNS OF RUSSIA, GERMANY, AND FRANCE. Translated from the French of **BARON LARREY.** In 8vo. with plates.

A MANUAL OF MEDICAL JURISPRUDENCE, compiled from the best Medical and Legal Works; comprising an account of—I. The Ethics of the Medical Profession; II. Charters and Laws relative to the Faculty; and III. All Medico-legal Questions, with the latest Decisions: being an Analysis of a course of Lectures on Forensic Medicine. By **MICHAEL RYAN, M. D.** Member of the Royal College of Physicians in London, &c. First American edition, with additions, by **R. EGLESFIELD GRIFFITH, M. D.** In 8vo.

"There is not a fact of importance or value connected with the science of which it treats, that is not to be found in its pages. The style is unambitious but clear and strong, and such as becomes a philosophic theme."—*Monthly Review.*

"It is invaluable to Medical Practitioners, and may be consulted safely by the Legal Profession."—*Weekly Dispatch.*

DIRECTIONS FOR MAKING ANATOMICAL PREPARATIONS, formed on the basis of Pole, Marjolin, and Breschet, and including the new method of Mr. Swan: by **USHER PARSONS, M. D.** Professor of Anatomy and Surgery. In 1 vol. 8vo. with plates.

"It is compiled and prepared with judgment, and is the best and most economical companion the student can possess to aid him in the pursuit of this delightful department of his labors."—*Boston Med. & Surg. Journal,* Sept. 27, 1831.

"This is unquestionably one of the most useful works on the preparation of Anatomical Specimens ever published. It should be in the hands of every lover of Anatomy; and as attention now is more directed to the formation of museums, it will be found a very valuable book. Nothing is omitted that is important, and many new formulæ are introduced, derived from the author's experience, and from rare books, which he has had the industry to collect."—*N. Y. Medical Journal,* August, 1831.

A PRACTICAL GUIDE TO OPERATIONS ON THE TEETH, by **JAMES SNELL,** Dentist. In 8vo. with plates.

PRINCIPLES OF PHYSIOLOGICAL MEDICINE, including Physiology, Pathology, and Therapeutics, in the form of Propositions; and Commentaries on those relating to Pathology, by **F. J. V. BROUSSAIS;** translated by **ISAAC HAYS, M. D.** and **R. E. GRIFFITH, M. D.** In 8vo.

ELEMENTS OF PHYSIOLOGY, by **ROBERT DUNGLISON, M. D.** In 2 vols. 8vo. with numerous illustrations. (In the press.)

PRINCIPLES OF SURGERY, by **JOHN SYME,** Professor of Surgery in the University of Edinburgh. In 8vo.

PRACTICAL REMARKS ON THE NATURE AND TREATMENT OF FRACTURES OF THE TRUNK AND EXTREMITIES; by **JOSEPH AMESBURY,** Surgeon. In 8vo. with plates and wood-cuts. (In the press.)

MEDICINE.

THE ANATOMY, PHYSIOLOGY, AND DISEASES OF THE TEETH. By THOMAS BELL, F. R. S., F. L. S. &c. In 1 vol. 8vo. With Plates.

"Mr. Bell has evidently endeavored to construct a work of reference for the practitioner, and a text-book for the student, containing a 'plain and practical digest of the information at present possessed on the subject, and results of the author's own investigations and experience.'" * * * "We must now take leave of Mr. Bell, whose work we have no doubt will become a class-book on the important subject of dental surgery."—*Medico-Chirurgical Review*.

"We have no hesitation in pronouncing it to be the best treatise in the English language."—*North American Medical and Surgical Journal*, No. 19.

AMERICAN DISPENSATORY, Ninth Edition, improved and greatly enlarged. By JOHN REDMAN COXE, M. D. Professor of Materia Medica and Pharmacy in the University of Pennsylvania. In 1 vol. 8vo.

* * This new edition has been arranged with special reference to the recent Pharmacopœias, published in Philadelphia and New-York.

ELLIS' MEDICAL FORMULARY. The Medical Formulary, being a collection of prescriptions derived from the writings and practice of many of the most eminent Physicians in America and Europe. By BENJAMIN ELLIS, M. D. 3d. edition. With Additions.

"We would especially recommend it to our brethren in distant parts of the country, whose insulated situations may prevent them from having access to the many authorities which have been consulted in arranging the materials for this work."—*Phil. Med. and Phys. Journal*.

MANUAL OF MATERIA MEDICA AND PHARMACY. By H. M. EDWARDS, M. D. and P. VAVASSEUR, M. D. comprising a concise Description of the Articles used in Medicine; their Physical and Chemical Properties; the Botanical Characters of the Medicinal Plants; the Formulæ for the Principal Official Preparations of the American, Parisian, Dublin, &c. Pharmacopœias; with Observations on the proper Mode of combining and administering Remedies. Translated from the French, with numerous Additions and Corrections, and adapted to the Practice of Medicine and to the Art of Pharmacy in the United States. By JOSEPH TOGNO, M. D. Member of the Philadelphia Medical Society, and E. DURAND, Member of the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy.

"It contains all the pharmaceutical information that the physician can desire, and in addition, a larger mass of information, in relation to the properties, &c. of the different articles and preparations employed in medicine, than any of the dispensatories, and we think will entirely supersede all these publications in the library of the physician."—*Am. Journ. of the Medical Sciences*.

MEMOIR ON THE TREATMENT OF VENEREAL DISEASES WITHOUT MERCURY, employed at the Military Hospital of the Val-de-Grace. Translated from the French of H. M. J. Desruelles, M. D. &c. To which are added, Observations by G. J. Guthrie, Esq. and various documents, showing the results of this Mode of Treatment, in Great Britain, France, Germany, and America. 1 vol. 8vo.

PREPARING FOR PUBLICATION
BY CAREY & LEA,
CYCLOPÆDIA
 OF
PRACTICAL MEDICINE;

COMPRISING
TREATISES ON THE NATURE AND TREATMENT OF DISEASES,
MATERIA MEDICA AND THERAPEUTICS,
MEDICAL JURISPRUDENCE, &c

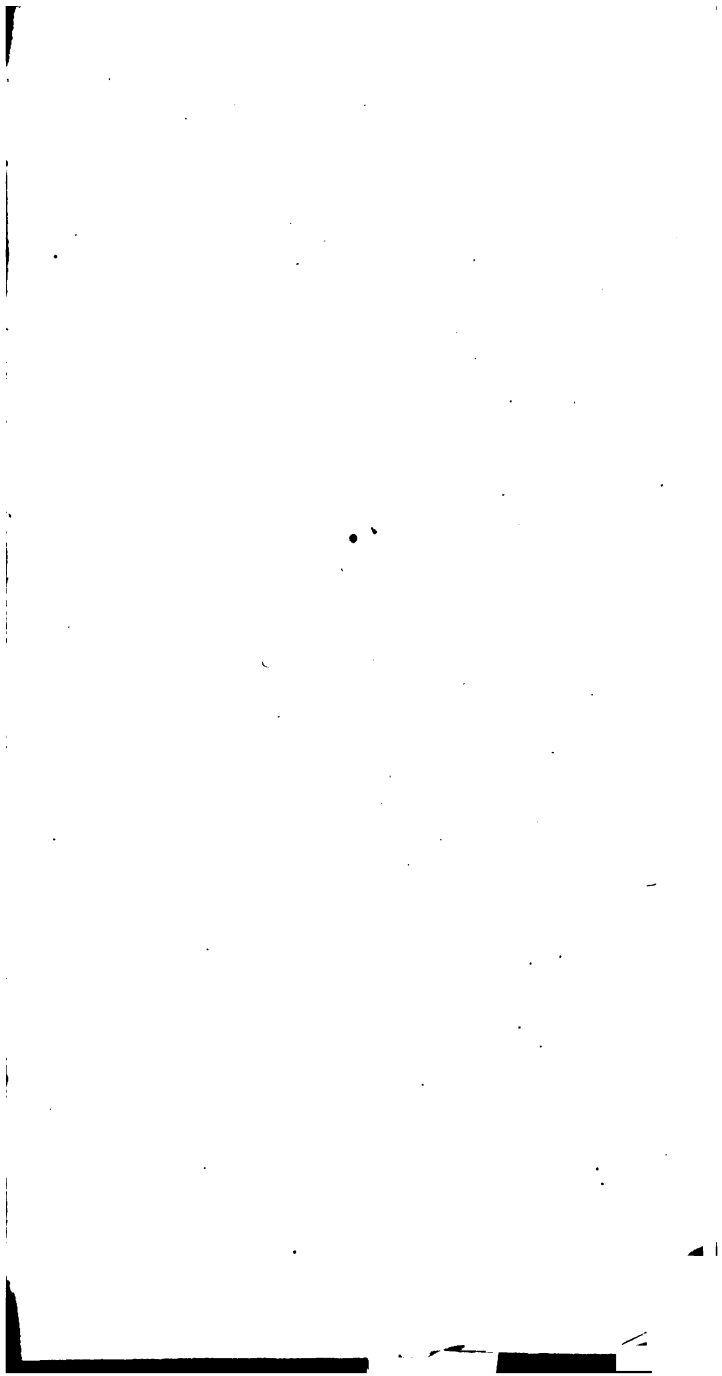
EDITED BY

JOHN FORBES, M. D. F. R. S. Physician to the Chichester Infirmary, &c.
ALEXANDER TWEEDIE, M. D. Physician to the London Fever Hospital, &c.
JOHN CONOLLY, M. D. Professor of Medicine in the London University, &c.

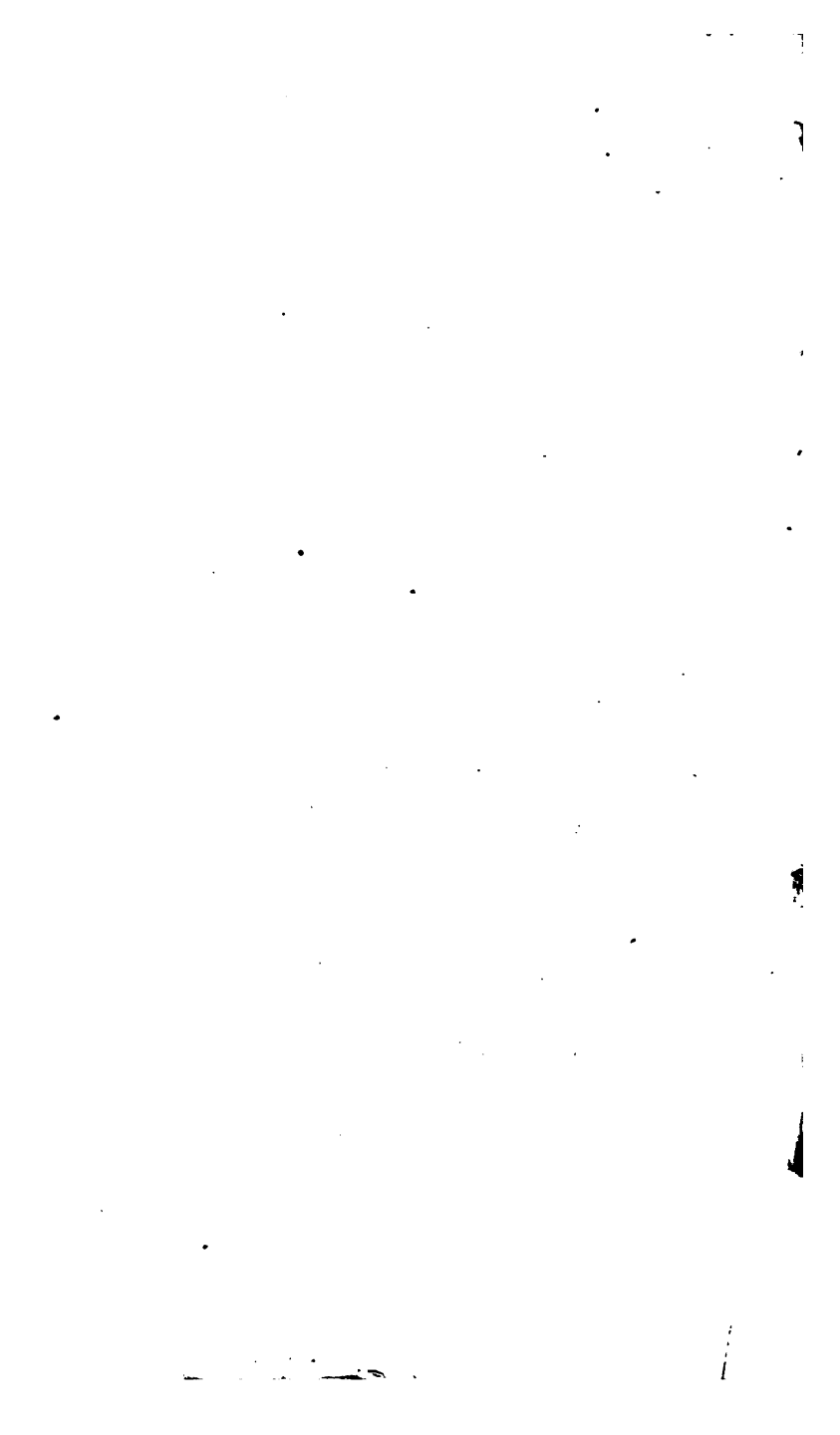
WITH THE ASSISTANCE OF THE FOLLOWING PHYSICIANS;

<p>JAMES APPOHN, M. D. M. R. I. A. Professor of Chemistry to the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland.</p> <p>JAMES L. BARDLEY, M. D. Physician to the Manchester Royal Infirmary Dispensary, &c.</p> <p>EDWARD BAILOW, M. D. Physician to the Bath United Hospital and Infirmary.</p> <p>R. N. BRABANT, M. D. Divises.</p> <p>JOSEPH BROWN, M. D. Physician to the Sunderland and Bishopwearmouth Infirmary.</p> <p>THOMAS H. BURDER, M. D. Member of the Royal College of Physicians, London.</p> <p>JOHN BURNE, M. D. Physician to the Carey-Street Dispensary.</p> <p>H. W. CARTER, M. D. F. R. S. E. Physician to the Kent and Canterbury Hospital.</p> <p>JOHN CHEYNE, M. D. F. R. S. E. M. R. I. A. Physician-General to the Forces in Ireland, &c. &c.</p> <p>JAMES CLARK, M. D. Physician to St. George's Infirmary, &c. &c.</p> <p>JOHN CLENDINNING, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, London.</p> <p>JOHN CRAMPTON, M. D. M. R. I. A. King's Professor of Materia Medica, Physician to Stevens's Hospital, &c. &c. Dublin.</p> <p>ANDREW CRAWFORD, M. D. Physician to the Hampshire County Hospital, Winchester.</p> <p>WILLIAM CUMIN, M. D. Glasgow.</p> <p>JAMES CUSACK, M. B. Stevens' Hospital, Dublin.</p> <p>JOHN DARWALL, M. D. Physician to the General Dispensary, Birmingham.</p> <p>D. D. DAVIS, M. D. M. R. S. L. Professor of Midwifery in the London University.</p> <p>JOHN ELLIOTSON, M. D. F. R. S. Physician to St. Thomas's Hospital.</p> <p>R. J. GRAVES, M. D. M. R. I. A. King's Professor of the Institutes of Medicine, Physician to the Meath Hospital and County of Dublin Infirmary.</p> <p>GEORGE GREGORY, M. D. Physician to the Small-Pox Hospital.</p> <p>MARSHALL HALL, M. D. F. R. S. E. Member of the Royal College of Physicians, London, &c. &c.</p> <p>THOMAS HANCOCK, M. D. Liverpool, Member of the Royal College of Physicians, London.</p>	<p>CHARLES HASTINGS, M. D. Physician to the Worcester General Infirmary.</p> <p>BISSET HAWKINS, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Professor of Materia Medica and Therapeutics in King's College, London.</p> <p>J. HOPE, M. D. Member of the Royal College of Physicians, London.</p> <p>ARTHUR JACOB, M. D. M. R. I. A. Professor of Anatomy to the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland.</p> <p>ROBERT LEE, M. D. F. R. S. Physician to the British Lying-in Hospital.</p> <p>CHARLES LIDCOCK, M. D. Physician to the Westminster General Lying-in Hospital, &c. &c.</p> <p>H. MARSH, M. D. M. R. I. A. Professor of the Principles and Practice of Medicine to the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, &c. Dublin.</p> <p>JONES QUAIN, M. B. Lecturer on Anatomy and Physiology in the Medical School, Aldersgate-Street.</p> <p>J. C. FRICHARD, M. D. F. R. S. Physician to the Infirmary and to St. Peter's Hospital, Bristol.</p> <p>ARCHIBALD ROBERTSON, M. D. Physician to the Northampton General Infirmary.</p> <p>P. M. ROGET, M. D. Soc. R. S. Consulting Physician and to the Northern Dispensary, &c. &c.</p> <p>JOHN SCOTT, M. D. Edinburgh.</p> <p>WILLIAM STOKES, M. D. Physician to the Meath Hospital.</p> <p>WILLIAM STROUD, M. D. Physician to the Northern Dispensary.</p> <p>A. T. THOMSON, M. D. F. L. S. Professor of Materia Medica in the London University.</p> <p>THOMAS THOMSON, M. D. F. R. S. L. & E. Regius Professor of Chemistry in the University of Glasgow, &c. &c.</p> <p>T. J. TODD, M. D. Physician to the Dispensary, Brighton.</p> <p>RICHARD TOWNSEND, A. B. M. D. M. R. I. A. Fellow of the King and Queen's College of Physicians, Dublin.</p> <p>CHARLES J. B. WILLIAMS, M. D. London. &c. &c. &c.</p>
---	--

To adapt the above work to the wants of this country, the publishers have engaged the assistance of many of our most eminent physicians, and they pledge themselves that no exertion shall be spared to render it worthy of patronage. It will be published in monthly numbers, price 50 cts. 112 pages each.





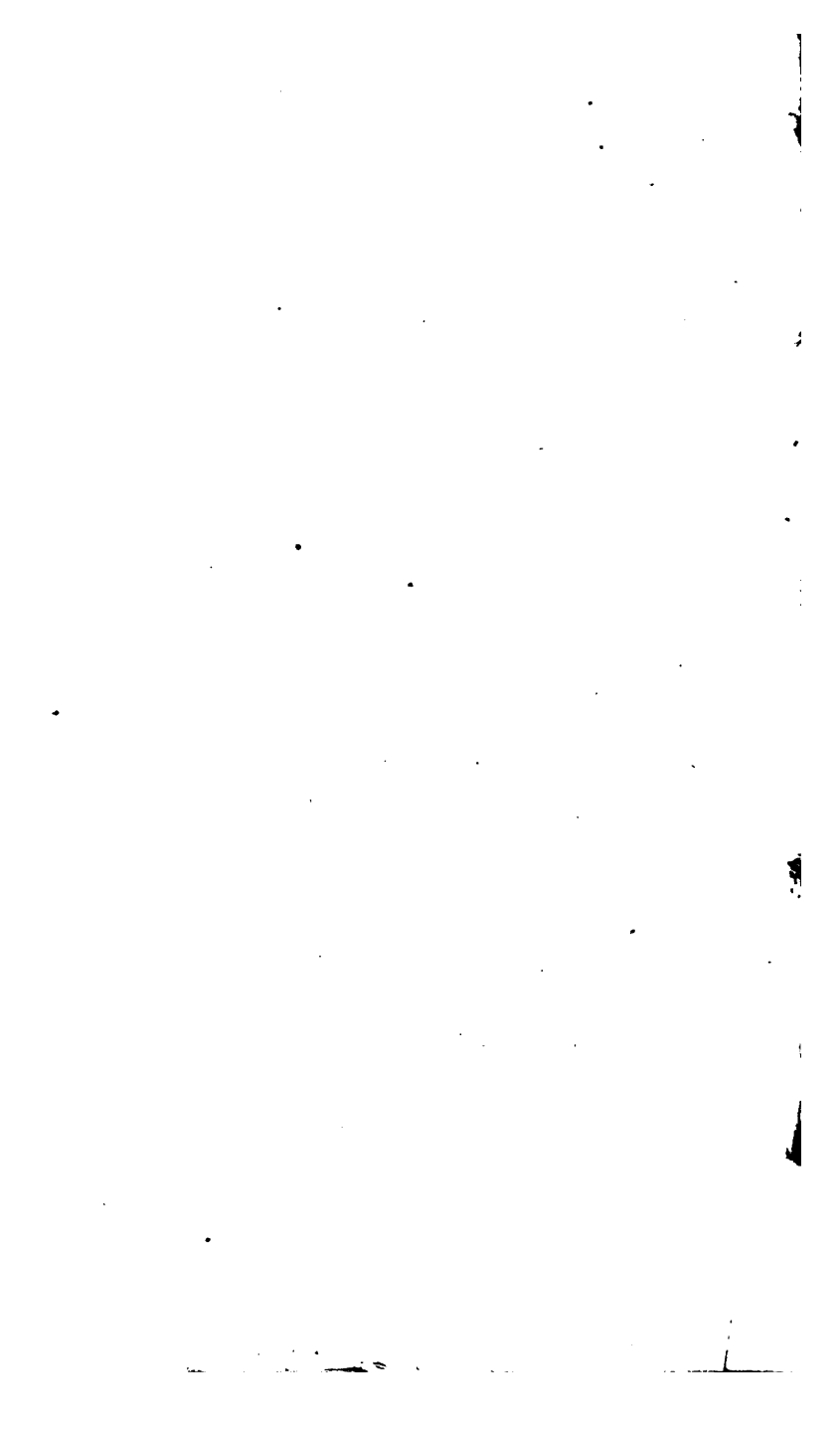


This book should be returned to
the Library on or before the last date
stamped below.

A fine of five cents a day is incurred
by retaining it beyond the specified
time.

Please return promptly.

DUE DEC 8 1917



DEC 8 1947